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by Y. Krishan

Transition Stage in China

by Lewis Gen

The Taiping Rebellion

by Sir John Pratt, K.B.E. C.M.G.

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by David Parry

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by A. James

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COVER PICTURE SHOWS

A young refugee fleeing from the battle area in South Korea

EASTERN WORLD

JAPANESE PEACE TREATY

An indication of just how much events in Asia can hinge on American domestic issues is given by President Truman's announcement that America is now seeking to commence the preparations for the Japanese peace treaty. Not only has Gen. MacArthur backed a public campaign for such a treaty, but he has been supported in this by John Foster Dulles, the Republican representative in the State Department, thus closing a rift between that body and the Defence Department which had hitherto prevented America from agreeing to Commonwealth and British proposals that an early Japanese peace treaty was desirable.

Now, however, since a peace conference cannot take place without the inclusion of China, Britain and America are facing a deadlock over the representation of China, an issue again dependent on American internal affairs, since in view of the extreme anti-Communist campaign which has been conducted there, it is hardly likely that the present Government would be prepared to make any concessions to Communist China before the November elections.

The American peace treaty proposals, in brief, aim at treating Japan as a particularly valuable ally, offering generous terms in exchange for Japanese support, in fact, to build up Japan militarily and economically as speedily as possible. Whether these suggestions will be acceptable to Japan's other erstwhile enemies cannot yet be judged, but already Australia's Minister for External Affairs, Dr. Spender, has stated that Australia would resist any attempt to give Japan the right to re-arm, and thus once again become a potential danger.

That America is prepared to face the obvious risk of undoing whatever progress has been accomplished towards the "democratisation" of Japan in exchange for strategic and military considerations, can be gathered, in a small way, from the recently authorised recruiting set-up for the new "police reserve" which is to be 75,000 strong, and control of which rests not with the Diet (as with the regular police force) but with MacArthur. It will be run on army lines by former Japanese army officials, and, perhaps most significant of all, armed with machine-guns and armoured cars.

PEACE FOR BURMA?

The agreement between the United States and Burma, by which the latter is to receive \$8 million to \$10 million in aid, in the form of capital goods, and, in addition, such technical assistance as she may require, does point to the fact that America now considers Burma to be on the road to more settled conditions. The last year has seen a remarkable change in the Burmese domestic scene. Thakin Nu, although when he first came into office did not give the impression of being the strong man needed in the troubled situation, has since shown remarkable skill in operating his "Peace within one year" plan. It only remains to be seen whether the Karens, who have up to now fought with increasing stubbornness, and who remain inherently distrustful of the Burmese, can be won over by skilled mediation. They are particularly strong in the Irrawaddy Delta, where they have allied themselves with the Communists, and unless they can be subdued this year's rice harvest will be affected. Nevertheless, the situation cannot be compared with that of last year, and on these grounds it is not too optimistic to hope that steps towards economic recovery will follow.

TRADE WITH CHINA

The conference of State trading representatives and private merchants recently held in Peking, devoted a great deal of time to the discussion of ways in which to revive and enlarge China's foreign trade. At present, although 90 per cent of her imports this year consisted of raw materials and equipment for production, nevertheless it is still insufficient for her needs. Foreign trade at present is carried on by both State and private enterprises, and it has been decided that major exports such as bristles and certain metallic ores should be State monopolies, but that dealings in other commodities should be limited, allowing scope for private traders. In imports, the State will continue to be the sole purchaser of military and industrial equipment, leaving other fields open for private merchants.

At the same time, China has made rapid progress towards economic rehabilitation. It can safely be said that inflation has been halted, and the People's Bank Dollar has risen in value. The price of rice has been stabilised, and the successful Manchurian harvests now enable the Government to ration grain.

The outlook for foreign traders, then, is not discouraging. The amount which the Chinese Government is buying from abroad can be gauged from the figures of Hong Kong's trade. During the first seven months of 1950 she exported to China nearly £38 million worth of goods—consisting chiefly of textiles, chemicals, fertilisers and rubber products—or more than treble the figures for the same period in 1949.

Believing in the freedom of the press, this journal represents a forum where articles containing many different, and often controversial, opinions are being published. They do not necessarily express the views or policy of the paper.

WESTMINSTER AND THE EAST

by *Harold Davies, M.P.*

WE passed long queues outside the House as we came in for the great debate on defence on September

12. All Parties had special private meetings at 10.30 in the morning, before the House opened. Workmen were still busy getting the new Chamber ready when we arrived for the re-call and the Labour Party were not able to use the famous Committee Room 14 because the decorators were still busy there, so we crowded into room 10 to listen to the Prime Minister and the Minister of Defence, Shinwell.

Private meetings of the Labour M.P.'s in the House deal primarily with Party problems. Here it is that Ministers are able to get the reactions of their back-benchers to their programme and policy. At these meetings Members are able to impress their Ministers with the feeling back in the Constituencies, but no major decisions are revealed, such statements must be reserved for the floor of the House as a whole. Shinwell's stock is high in the Party now and it is acknowledged by Members on all sides that he has tackled his job at the Ministry of Defence with confidence and understanding. He has worked tirelessly during the Recess and in a short talk that I had with him before the main debate showed that he understood the need for increasing economic aid in S.E. Asia to be, after all, one of our greater tasks, and one that could not be neglected if we hoped to win Asia for Democracy. Unpalatable as the situation was the Government accepted the responsibility to organise a defence economy at an overall cost of £3,600,000,000, but I found an air of sadness in our ranks. Would the Government have to turn aside from all its social aims? One colleague quoted to me the figures from the Economic Commission on Asia and the Far East on aid to S.E. Asia. Despite Truman's Fourth Point, outside of South Korea, Japan and the Philippines, little help had been given to the rest of Asia. The Economic Commissions amounts are, in millions of dollars:

Loans and grants from July, 1945, to December, 1949.

Western Europe	18,628
China	1,755
Japan	1,765
Philippines	568
South Korea	300
Rest of Asia	53

In the same period British loans, grants and sterling balance releases had amounted to 1,775 million dollars to the same areas.

Several Members of various political opinions felt that American recognition of Mao Tse-tung's Government would have to come and they were gratified that the day before Britain had stood out at U.N. for this line of approach. It was recognised though that this might, at the moment, be difficult for the Americans while they were meeting with a set-back in Korea, and also while the American elections are imminent.

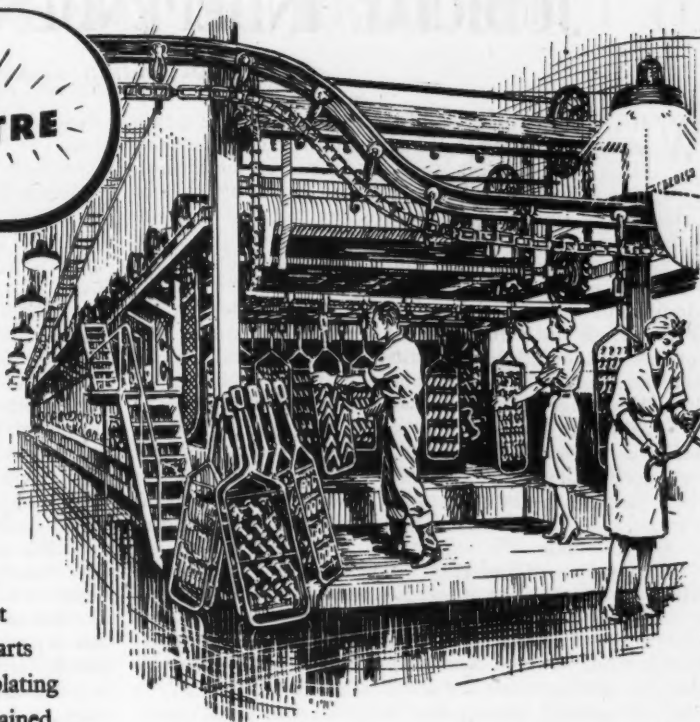
Once again the shadow of the Far East was over Parliament. The Premier moved: "That this House approves the proposals contained in the White Papers Command No. 8026 and Command No. 8027, designed by His Majesty's Government to meet the growing dangers to world peace of which the war in Korea is an example; and is of the opinion that the necessary legislation to amend the National Service Acts should be brought in forthwith."

It was in 1938 when Neville Chamberlain said that he was going to meet Hitler that the House had had so many diplomats filling the Public Galleries. Outside between Downing Street and the Commons crowds thronged the pavements. Mr. Attlee told us that the new programme envisaged certain immediate steps together with a long term programme which would take time to implement. It would entail sacrifices from the people in Britain and involve the interruption of the progress made in building up the standard of life of our people. He told us that it was distasteful and disappointing, but it had been forced upon us through world tension. He said that continual obstruction by Soviet Russia had frustrated the efforts of the United Nations. This great expenditure of £3,600,000,000 represented the maximum we can do by expanding and using to the full our industrial capacity, without resorting to the drastic expedients of a war economy.

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JUDICIAL INDEPENDENCE IN INDIA

by an Indian Lawyer

WHEN the British withdrew from India, the power which was vested in His Majesty the King to appoint High Court judges and the judges of the Federal Court was transferred to the Governor-General of India by virtue of the Indian Independence Act. It had been the pride of the British that they had introduced many reforms in India, turning a country with a mediaeval outlook into a modern nation, but none so important as the judicial administration and the reign of law. Recently the debt due to the British for introducing the judicial system has been publicly acknowledged by writers and speakers, who as politicians had been the opponents of the British regime. With the change of authority which appoints the judges of the High Court and Supreme Court, there has come a sad decline in the security of the tenure and the independence of the judges of all grades. There have been recently instances where judges have been removed in such circumstances as to cause apprehension in the minds of other judges and of the general public.

The judges of the High Courts in India—Indian or British—from the time of inception of the Supreme Courts in Calcutta, Madras and Bombay, commanded universal respect for their learning, character and independence. Whatever might have been said against the Civil Service even the severest critics of the British Raj did not say a word of reproach against the judges of the High Courts during the one hundred and fifty years of their administration. Their independence was due to their being free from interference by the executive and to the fact that they were appointed under Royal Sign manual. A superior judge could be removed only after a serious investigation into any misconduct that may have been alleged and satisfactorily proved against him. Not one such case ever came up during the pre-independence period.

The days of judicial independence have gone with the coming of political independence. A certain Englishman, the Chief Justice of the Chartered High Court, chose to continue to remain in office after the Independence Act introduced the new system. In a case for the issue of a writ of certiorari against a statutory body for acting contrary to law, but in accordance with executive orders of the provincial government, he had perforce to remark against the interference of the Government with law. He was right, but the Government took these observations with ill grace, and the Congressmen who dominate the Legislature and form Provincial Ministries, made the life of the Chief Justice so unbearable that he resigned and left for his own country. This incident occurred within six months of the attainment of political independence and the people of the province lost a good Chief Justice, who could have upheld the rights of the people against the inroads of the executive.

The next case is even more disastrous in effect than the previous one. It showed how helpless the High Court judges are under the present set-up. A judge of another High Court in Northern India was accused of being partial, given to favouritism, and swerving from strict law to oblige his favourite lawyers. Five charges were brought against him and the Governor-General asked the judges of the

Federal Court to investigate them. Most of them were found to be untenable, but only one of them was stated to have been proved, namely that he gave certain discretionary orders in favour of his favourites. The curious phenomenon was that the Governor-General who asked the Federal judges to investigate chose to file affidavits in support of the allegations; the influence of this course of action can be easily imagined.

The third case is from an acceding state (formerly an Indian State under British Suzerainty). A lawyer thought it was his duty to expose the vagaries of a non-judicial tribunal and incurred the displeasure of the presiding officers, who committed him to prison for alleged contempt of court. The High Court interfered and held that the non-judicial tribunal was no court at all, and hence the lawyer had not committed any contempt. The result was disastrous to the Chief Justice, who delivered the main and leading judgment; he was asked to "retire" before his time.

The authority who removed the High Court judge is the President of the Indian Republic, and the order of removal was signed on the very day of the inauguration of the Indian Republic, January 26th, 1950. The order did not say why he was asked to retire, but merely cited two articles of the new Constitution under which the President acted, and announced that the judge would function as such only till February 2nd. The order was communicated on February 6th. No reasons of any kind were given and even the judge does not know why he was removed. He has no means of redress and is in the dark as to how the order was passed. These occurrences are sure to undermine public confidence and confidence of the judges in the Administration which employs them. The tenure of the judges could be terminated in any one of the ways stated in Articles 124 and 217 of the Indian Constitution, but in the last case cited there is no indication that any of the processes mentioned in the Articles ever were followed.



Calcutta High Court
(By courtesy of H.E. The High Commissioner for India)

THE PUNJAB TRAGEDY IN RETROSPECT (1)

by Y. Krishan (New Delhi)

THE upheaval that occurred in the Punjab in 1947 at the time of the Partition forms one of the most sordid, but nevertheless, one of the most important events in Indian history. Both from the point of view of the magnitude of the tragedy as well as from the consequences that have followed or will follow therefrom, it may aptly be described as marking a new chapter in the history of the Indian sub-continent.

Of the two main parties, the Indian National Congress and the Muslim League, at least the Congress, to begin with, considered the partition of India as temporary, and cherished hopes of re-union. And not without justification. Both countries contained large well-organised minorities; both stood to gain much by re-union, more particularly the Muslims. Leaders of both the States solemnly assured full protection to minorities and paradoxically even Mr. Jinnah, on the achievement of Pakistan ceased to think of Hindus and Muslims as two nations politically. But all that is now changed. Western Pakistan has become a truly Muslim State having a negligible non-Muslim population, while the East Punjab has very largely become a non-Muslim province. Hindu-Muslim relations have now been deeply embittered. Whatever Mahatma Gandhi might have said to the contrary, large-scale painful exchange of population is an accomplished fact from which there can be no going back. At best all that one can hope for is that Hindu-Muslim antagonism is not perpetuated, like the Franco-German vendetta, through the coming centuries.

Generally speaking the origin of the stupendous conflict in the Punjab between the Hindus and Sikhs on the one hand and the Muslims on the other can be traced to four factors: first, the disintegration of the Unionist Party; second, the embitterment of the local League leaders as a result of their repeated exclusion from power; third, the break-down in the administrative machinery owing to the intense communal spirit affecting the services after the Calcutta Killing, and the events following the failure of the Punjab Government in dealing with the Muslim League's defiance of law in the beginning of 1947, the apathy of British officials towards the growing anarchy in the Province, and, above all, the "option" given to government servants to serve either Dominion after 14th August, 1947; lastly, the proposal to divide the Punjab on population cum "other factors" wherein the latter criterion was left undefined.

The disintegration of the Unionist Party has been an event of major importance in the Punjab inasmuch as the Muslim League grew up in its ashes. The death of Sir Sikandar Hayat Khan in 1943 left a void in Punjab politics and more particularly in the ranks of the Unionist Party which remained unfilled. Under his masterly leadership, the Muslim was able to dominate the administration without antagonizing the Hindu save the vocal, well-organised and intelligent Hindu business class. Though in all-India politics, he allied himself with Mr. Jinnah, Sir Sikandar

pursued an independent policy in provincial affairs and successfully resisted the intrusion of the militant policies of Muslim League firebrands in the Punjab. Under him, it must be said to his credit, the Punjab remained free from serious communal strife. His death caused an irreparable breach and the way was left open for the Muslim League to assert itself.

The mantle of Sir Sikandar's leadership fell on the shoulders of the tall, graceful Sir Khizar Hayat Khan, an able administrator but a diminutive compared with his predecessor. With the assistance of Sir Chhotu Ram, another dominating personality in provincial politics, he was able to keep the Unionist Party intact. Like Sir Sikandar, Sir Khizar, though a member of the Muslim League, continued to follow an independent policy in provincial affairs. It was at the hands of Sir Khizar Hayat Khan and Sir Chhotu Ram that Mr. Jinnah suffered a major political defeat when in 1944 he failed to persuade Sir Khizar to abide by his decision in provincial politics. Mr. Jinnah retaliated by expelling Sir Khizar Hayat Khan from the League. But the influence on the League was steadily on the increase. To the misfortune of the Punjab, Sir Chhotu Ram died at this crucial time. Bereft of leadership that commanded the confidence of Hindu and Muslim rural classes, the non-communal Unionist Party of the Punjab soon disintegrated.

This became apparent at the Polls in 1945 from which the Unionist Party emerged very much attenuated. The Congress dubbed it as reactionary, unprogressive and anti-national and captured practically all the Hindu seats. The Muslim League denounced it as an anti-Muslim creation of the vested Hindu interests. The latter, afraid of the League coming to power, gave support to the Muslim Unionist candidates; it only strengthened the Muslim suspicion that the Hindus wanted to keep the Muslim League out of office. In the Muslim rural areas, however, the Unionists had still a stronghold at the time and the election soon resolved itself into a bitter League-Unionist struggle in the countryside. Devoid of talented leadership and dominated by easy-going landlords, the Unionist Party lacked organisation, and a programme with an appeal to the common man; its party bosses grossly under-estimated the strength of their opponents and fatuously depended upon the support of the governmental machinery procuring the rural votes for them. It was matched by a well-knit and active party with a creed for which men were prepared to live and die. In the objective of Pakistan the Muslim League had a slogan which had a terrific hold over the masses and the rank and file of the Muslims in the administrative machine. The election result was no surprise except to the Unionist. Mr. Jinnah's defeat had been avenged.

The elections of 1945 threw the party politics of the Punjab in the melting pot. The Muslim League was the largest single party in the legislature but without an absolute

majority, followed by the Congress, the Akalis and the Unionists. For reason of personal friendship for Sir Khizar and dislike for some League leaders and contrary to constitutional practice, the then Governor, Sir Bertrand Glancy, did not invite the leader of the largest party—Khan of Mamdot—to form the ministry. The Congress-League negotiations for a Coalition cabinet foundered on the refusal of the former to recognize the representative character of the latter. The Congress insisted upon the inclusion of the reactionary Sir Khizar—a *bête noire* to the League—in the ministry to represent the non-League Muslims. The League-Akali Coalition could not come off because of the blind refusal of the League to concede to the Sikhs the right of self-determination which it claimed for the Muslims as this meant the division of the Punjab. For according to Muslim League conception, the whole of the Punjab was to be in Pakistan. If either of the two coalitions had been formed, it is quite possible that the present tragedy or even the Partition might have been avoided.

There were attempts at a Congress-Akali-Unionist Coalition which ultimately succeeded. But its formation was dangerously protracted by the insistence of the Congress to be the representative of the Sikhs, matched by an equally vehement claim of the Akalis to be their sole representative. The weary negotiations, in which Maulana Azad played a leading role, dragged on. The delay was fatal. Despairing of a Congress-Akali agreement the waverers in the Unionist Camp joined the League which the Governor, it was hoped, would be forced to invite to form the Government. With the desertion of stalwart leaders like Sir Jamal Khan Leghari, Major Ashiq Hussain Khan, K.B., Sheikh Feroze Din, the Unionist Party of Sir Fazl-i-Hussain practically ceased to exist; henceforth, it consisted of Sir Khizar Hyat Khan supported by a handful of obscure office hunters. But the Governor refused to see the facts; he bided his time till the Congress and the Akalis supported by Sir Khizar Hyat Khan were able to form a Ministry.

The Muslim League felt very sore over this unjust exclusion from power which was its due, though conveniently forgetting similar unconstitutional acts in its favour by the Governors of Bengal, the North West Frontier Province and Sind earlier. In its anger, it saw in the non-Muslims its real enemy; it now launched against them the usual "atrocities campaign." The pitch was being queered for serious trouble.

Time rolled on. The Khizar Ministry seemed to survive the Muslim League campaign of vilification. But the Indian political situation continued to grow worse. In August, 1946, came the Great Calcutta Killing. That event was a turning point in the history of Hindu-Muslim relations in India. Communal frenzy reached a height unknown before; the Hindus and Muslims did not merely fight; now they fought like Kilkeny cats. The "killing" was nothing short of a civil war in miniature and set the standard of communal rioting for the rest of India.

Calcutta was followed by large-scale communal rioting in Noakhali, Bihar, North West Frontier Province, Garhmuktesar (U.P.) and West Punjab, particularly districts of Rawalpindi and Multan. The quick succession of bloody happenings revealed that the spirit of partisanship had entered the Police forces. The moral of these events was clear; Hindu-Muslim relations were entering upon a new phase of organised mass rioting presaging civil war. The ideal of a United India was wilting under the blight of communal carnage; bloodshed was impinging on the Congress leaders the futility of resisting Pakistan. The Congress now began demanding the division of the Punjab which inevitably led to the cry for the partition of Bengal. Pakistan in a mutilated shape appeared to be within the grasp of the Muslim League.

* The exodus of non-Muslims from the N.W.F.P. and West Punjab towards the end of 1946 and beginning of 1947 to Central and East Punjab was considered as temporary pending political settlement.

(To be continued).

PAKISTAN'S LAND PROBLEMS

by M. H. Khan (Karachi)

THE problem of soil erosion in Pakistan is a complicated one, since climate, soils, economic and social conditions in the eastern and the western parts of the country, separated by India, occur in such a variety of combinations that it would be misleading to generalise on the subject for the entire country.

Broadly speaking, the eastern part consists of terrain that is cut up by waterways and marshes. It is characterised by a hot and humid monsoonic climate, with rainfall well over 150 inches in a major part of it.

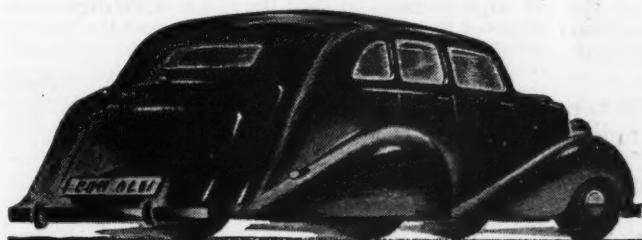
Western Pakistan, on the other hand, borders on desert conditions, with rainfall ranging from 30 inches in the north-east, along the Indian border, to less than 10 inches along the Afghan and Persian borders in the west. From the point of view of study of erosion it can be further sub-divided

into three distinct zones: a temperate mountainous region in the north and extensive plains in the south, with foothills and sub-mountainous tracts intervening between the two and extending to the west and north-west. The mountains largely consist of gneiss, shale, slate and trap, while the foothills, the hub of the erosion menace, are made up of erodible sandstones and conglomerates. The plains are alluvial except for the Sind Desert. In short, the two regions have distinct physical and economic characteristics and can best be dealt with separately.

EASTERN PAKISTAN

The hilly tracts generally consist of soft rock, whereas the river banks, deltas and the plains are made up of alluvial silt. The heavy rainfall, coupled with the soft nature of the underlying rock, would result in serious erosion were

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LEFT

IN SOME COUNTRIES THEY DRIVE

RIGHT



BUT THE WORLD OVER THEY

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it not for the fact that thick vegetation blunts the impact of the rain. Shifting cultivation, a legacy from the distant past, is still practised in this area, though of late it has been strongly discouraged. In the tea gardens, mostly on the sloping lands, the "runoff" is quite heavy because the ground cover is sparse during the first few years of the tea crop. Lands near the rivers are subject to inundation every now and then, resulting in the destruction of crops and the spreading of sterile sand on fertile lands.

Besides dense vegetation, another redeeming feature is the cultivation of rice and jute throughout the region. For rice cultivation, the fields are terraced with great precision in order to hold water, thereby eliminating all possible chances of erosion.

In recent years, floods have been so devastating that both the public and the Government realised the necessity of taking all possible precautions to prevent denudation of the catchment areas. Wherever practicable, river-training operations are undertaken, but compared with Western Pakistan, however, where emphasis has been primarily on the improvement of agricultural lands, results in Eastern Pakistan have not been so spectacular for the simple reason that not much is required to be done by way of improvement through physical methods.

WESTERN PAKISTAN

In order to appreciate the magnitude and nature of the problem in this area, it is necessary to enumerate the causes specific to each of three zones:—

First, the temperate mountainous regions. This tract forms part of the western Himalayan range. It is mountainous and is mostly covered with forests except on the southern slopes and in high alpine regions above the limit of tree growth. Holdings are very small and as the farmer has no other means of earning his livelihood he bestows the best possible care on the plot of land on which he has to maintain his family. As in Eastern Pakistan, the rich farmer has developed the best type of terrace in a very difficult terrain and thus preserved the soil in an ideal condition. In the dry-farmed fields, too, the sheer necessity to make the best of the small farms led to the construction of earth bounds on gentle slopes, while on steeper gradients stone walls, involving hundreds of hours of labour, have been erected to protect fields not bigger than a quarter of an acre. This device saved the soil from being washed away and in a few years collected enough silt behind the wall to make excellent terraces.

The Himalayan foothills and trans-Indus tract, due to unstable geological formations, present the worst type of gullying and complete destruction of once fertile fields for miles around. Unfortunately this belt has been subject to many adverse factors during the last two hundred years or so. With the advent of peaceful conditions, the people from the plains were attracted towards the wooded hills which provided unlimited grazing facilities for their livestock. There was thus a concentration of population all along the foothills, mostly of graziers who raised large herds of goats, sheep and other cattle. The people cut and frequently burnt the forests to create grazing grounds when the productivity of natural pastures declined or as the live-

stock increased. With the development of railways (which in early days burnt firewood instead of coal) and highways, towns and cantonments sprang up. The brunt of supplying timber and firewood fell on these areas. In the trans-Indus region where the scrub protected the hillsides, the stationing of large garrisons to keep the peace of the frontier region depleted them of all cover in order to meet the full requirements of the forces.

This combination of factors resulted in deforestation, heavy grazing and the cultivation of land that was unsuited to farming. The result has been disastrous not only in the hills but also in plains below. The water level in the wells has fallen considerably, making well irrigation either impossible or uneconomical. Sandy torrents originating in the hills ruined thousands of acres of fertile land. They change their courses every now and then and are therefore a constant menace to the agricultural lands. Moreover, when in spate they disrupt rail and road communications, besides silting the reservations and canal headworks, involving huge expenditure every year in dredging operations. The Forests Departments of the Provinces have done very useful work in protecting the catchments and channelising the torrents. Contour ploughing and ridding of the fields is being advocated, and people are gradually realising the advantages accruing from the adoption of conservation measures.

As pointed out, most of the pioneering conservation work in these areas has been done by the Forest Departments. Their efforts naturally have been confined to the use of trees, shrubs and vines. Considerable progress has been made in experimenting with promising species to stabilise the banks of the streams which overflow in the rains, spreading sterile sand on arable land. In the light soils of Attock, Gujerat and Hoshiarpur districts of the Punjab, *Phragmites karka*, *Saccharum munja*, *Saccharum spontaneum*, *Lannea grandis*, *Vitex negundo*, *Arundo denax* and *Ipomea carnes* have been successfully used. *Dalbergia sissoo* has also been grown in the partially stabilised stream beds behind hedges of the above plants on the bank. In the hills, willows are used for streambank stabilisation.

Kudzu (*Pueraria thumbergiana*) is an exotic of great promise in covering gullies and other badly eroded areas. Though it has not been planted on a large scale, its usefulness in subtropical regions as a soil binder and fodder crop has been established beyond doubt.

PAKISTAN'S GRANARY

The plains of the West Punjab and Sind constitute what is popularly known as the granary of Pakistan. They are made up of flat stretches of rich alluvium extending over hundreds of miles. One of the best systems of canal irrigation is to be found in this part of the country. The problem is not erosion, for there is very little slope anywhere, though as mentioned above, near the hills the land is subject to damage as a result of erosion occurring in the hills. Similarly, the Sind desert (over 30,000 sq. miles) is gradually encroaching on the fertile marginal land. Instances are common where good irrigated lands have had to be abandoned due to the deposition of sand blown from

the desert. The entire desert fringe is subject to this form of damage from sand-blow. The problem is so gigantic that at present there does not seem to be a way out. A solution may lie in an elaborate shelter belt programme, which is possible only at a stage when water for irrigation becomes available in the bordering areas.

There are other problems not resulting from erosion. In the canal colonies of the West Punjab, land is going out of production at the terrific rate of about 200,000 acres per annum, due to waterlogging and salinity. Yields in other areas are declining as a result of poor farm management. Rotations are not practised to the desired extent. The only available fertiliser, barnyard manure, is burnt in place of fuel. These factors suggest the need for a complete re-orientation of farming practices by introducing legumes in crop rotations and the creation of fuel forests near the villages, so that manure could be released from the hearth and used in the fields.

The above are in brief the salient features relating to erosion and conservation in Pakistan. There are certain other social and economic factors that directly affect the question of soil conservation and land utilisation. The excessive human and cattle population, the land tenure system and the religious predilections of a certain community, prohibiting killing of useless cattle, seriously hamper conservation operations. The continuous increase in population has reduced the *per capita* cultivable land to the ridiculously small size of 0.6 acres. The farmers try to eke out a living by bringing under the plough land that is too steep or light to be safely cultivated. Since both the man and his cattle have to be fed from the produce of the cropland—the area of which is too small to admit of part being left in pasture—only such crops have to be raised as can yield sufficient straw for the cattle, in addition to grains.

LAW AS A HANDICAP

The laws of inheritance are probably the greatest impediment in the way of proper land use. All the sons of a farmer are entitled to an equal share of land. This type of division has been going on for centuries and the chaotic state of affairs it has given rise to is almost unbelievable. The situation has improved in some districts of the Punjab by what is called the "consolidation of holdings." The underlying idea is to allot each owner land in a minimum number of compact plots equivalent in area to all his fields scattered at many places. This leads to better care of land and crops, the saving of labour and equal attention to tillage and manuring of the entire farm, instead of almost complete neglect of the fields away from the farmstead.

For the success of any scheme of soil conservation which will entail the adoption of measures like the rotation of crops, adjustment in land use, terracing, bunding, strip-cropping and the growing of farm forests, consolidation seems to be essential. In view of the smallness of individual farms (the average being about 5 acres) the second important condition is to create farming units of a minimum economic size. This will involve some sort of co-operative arrangement wherein a village or a farming community will manage the farms of the co-operators as a single unit. It

will then be possible to put each plot of land to the use for which it is best suited.

Hitherto Government functions have been divided into various departmental channels without any co-ordination, with the result that either there was considerable duplication of effort or certain gaps were left unfilled. Increasing population and the fall in fertility, together with a general demand for raising the standard of living of the farmer, have brought the subject of conservation to the forefront of the national schemes of development. An instance of a step in the right direction is the inauguration of the Thal project in West Punjab, where large-scale shelterbelt planting is undertaken in conjunction with the reclamation of sub-marginal desert land by irrigation. Refugees and ex-servicemen are being settled on the land thus reclaimed.

Schemes are already under way to organise a central service of experts from different branches of sciences dealing with land use. The function of the service will be to advise the provinces and states on matters relating to land utilisation. Agriculture, forestry and irrigation being provincial subjects, the responsibility for putting any programme into action will largely devolve on the Provinces themselves, under the general technical guidance and with the assistance of the central organisation. The object is to start the scheme on the lines of the Soil Conservation Service of the U.S.A. The Government has a batch of technicians trained in the science of soil and moisture conservation whose services are shortly to be utilised in sponsoring the programme of soil conservation on an extensive scale.

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FROM ALL QUARTERS

Achievements in China's War Against Infectious Diseases

Achievements have been reported from all parts of China in the war against infectious diseases this year.

An army of nearly 4,000 Government medical workers, doctors and nurses as well as students of medical colleges have been organised in more than 60 working teams during the past six months. Fifty million people have been immunised against smallpox, cholera, typhoid and other infectious diseases. In Hopeh Province alone, more than 8,000,000 people have been vaccinated against smallpox this year. Almost the whole population of the Port Arthur-Dairen area were vaccinated and there were no cases of smallpox there this year. In Peking, smallpox cases fell from 190 last year to 11 this year, the number of deaths showing a proportionate reduction, while cases of rat-borne plague in the North-east and Inner Mongolia this year fell to only 38 as a result of intensive efforts by the health departments.

Pandit Nehru in Assam

Prime Minister Pandit Nehru, who recently toured the earthquake affected areas in Assam, addressed a meeting of 50,000 people in Gauhati and appealed for help to the earthquake sufferers. He said that the Government of India would do its best in mitigating the hardships of the flood stricken people, but the crisis could only be overcome by the efforts of the Assamese themselves. Offers to help Assam were pouring in from all parts of the globe. India had to face a number of calamities and problems since the dawn of her independence, and he asked the people to face them with fortitude and work to solve them.

Pandit Nehru pointed out that Assam had become of great strategic importance in view of the events of the last few years. The State was bounded by Tibet, China, Burma and Pakistan, where various changes had taken place, and on this account Assam had undisputedly come to occupy an increasingly important position in India's defence and economy.

Research on Bhagavad Gita

Comprehensive research on the Bhagavad Gita is shortly to be undertaken by ten scholars from different parts of India. Their work will entail translation into Hindi of several hundred European and Oriental manuscripts and visits to foreign countries. The scholars expect to complete their work in about 10 years. This research, which has been sponsored by a religious trust in Delhi, will be carried on mostly in permanent institutions of religious philosophies to be set up in New Delhi.

The institute when established will be the first of its kind in India. The scholars will first start working on the Gita. Different aspects of the Gita ranging from the metre of its verses to its system of philosophy and metaphysics present scope for thorough research. The scholars will examine different expositions and try to provide authentic answers to many controversial questions regarding the date of the Gita and the message it teaches.

In their attempt at determining the historical basis of

the Gita they will have to decide whether Lord Krishna and Arjuna were real persons and how far the Mahabharata was an historical fact. According to Sri Aurobindo, the battle at Kurukshetra was actually fought and Krishna and others were historical characters. Mahatma Gandhi, however, believed that the Mahabharata was a symbolic battle representing conflict between the good and evil forces in man.

Determination of the period during which the Gita was written will be another controversial subject. The date of its composition has been differently placed by various students of philosophy. Tilak placed it at "at least 500 years before the Saka era." Others have reckoned it between the fifth and first century B.C. or even later.

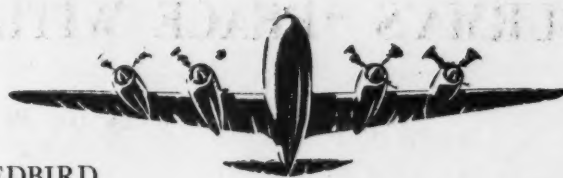


Sir Owen Dixon, the United Nations mediator in the Kashmir dispute, photographed on his return to London

UNICEF Help to Japanese Flood Victims

The United Nations' International Children's Emergency Fund has given emergency aid to 13,000 children in an area of Japan recently stricken by floods.

When early in August calamitous rains hit parts of Japan, particularly Central Honshu and Hokkaido, causing swollen rivers and serious floods, driving many thousands of people from their homes, the Children's Bureau of Japan requested assistance for thousands of children from 6,000 homes under water in seven villages. The request for 30 drums of dry skim milk, for use in temporary emergency feeding centres for five days, was granted and provisions were made available from UNICEF's stock in Yokohama. In UNICEF's normal feeding programme, milk is being provided in Japan to 128,000 infants and children in schools, hospitals and other institutions.



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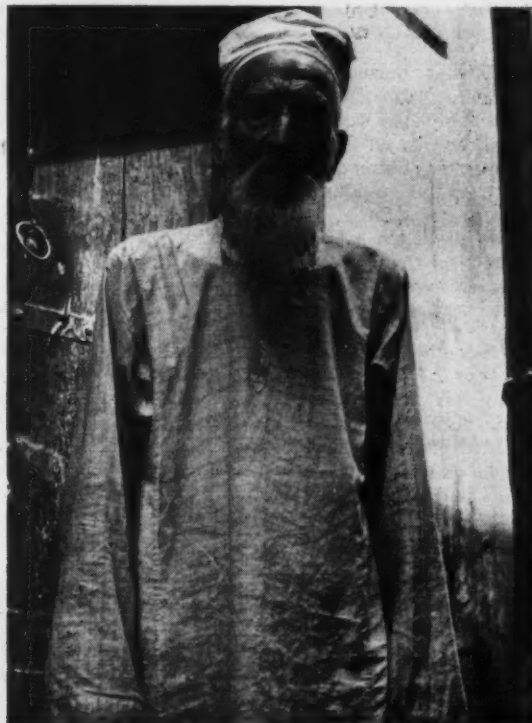
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Royal Pensioners

The Moghul Empire, once unrivalled in wealth and display, still costs the people of India 125 rupees a month for pensions to impoverished descendants of the Emperor Bahadur Shah, who occupied the "Peacock Throne" and was exiled by the British after the Indian Mutiny.

(right) The most direct descendant, 85-year-old Mohiuddin Mirza (below) Hamid Shah, another pensioned descendant, with his son. He gets the highest of the Moghul pensions because his ancestor, Ilabi Bux, was loyal to the British during the 1858 Mutiny.



BURMA'S "PEACE WITHIN ONE YEAR PLAN"

by On Pe (Rangoon)

ON July 19th, last year, when the entire nation observed the grim anniversary of the assassination of Burma's leader Aung San and his colleagues, the Burmese Prime Minister Thakin Nu announced a plan for establishing peace in the country within one year.

At that time the wave of insurrections in Burma was rising, and daily reports of towns and villages being occupied by rebels of one sort or another, sometimes rebels of all sorts jointly, were received in Rangoon. The plan to achieve peace within one year seemed too ambitious. Even the supporters of the Government were rather sceptical about it. The scheme looked too elaborate, for it consisted not only of a drive against the rebels, but also foresaw the rehabilitation of the country, both structurally and economically. Its most important factor was that the Government armed forces should first suppress the widespread rebellion in the country.

In less than six months after the launching of this plan, the Government troops had retaken a good number of towns and villages, but the results were not so satisfactory. Then at the turn of the half-year a kind of "miracle" happened. The rebels lost ground with such rapidity that it appeared that the Government forces simply walked into occupied towns and villages.

Devout Burmans sentimentally ascribed this to the visit from India of the Sacred Relics of Buddha. But the material reasons were not far to seek. The factors which paved the way for the success of the Government troops are (1) increase of strength of the army both in manpower and arms; (2) the dwindling strength of the rebels both in men and arms; (3) the split among the rebel elements; (4) the realisation of the people of the futility of Communism and of the New Democracy practised by the rebels in the areas they held; and (5) a similar realisation by the more sincere elements of the rebel groups.

Since the defection of several units of the Government forces in the first year of the insurrection in 1948, the men in the services were firm, loyal and dutiful. They realised the futility of rebelling and they noticed that those who revolted had been made tools of by the Communists. They also realised that defection would mean rebelling against the people and not the Government, for it was the people who suffered while the position of the Government remained unchanged.

The earlier stories of gun-running may have held germs of truth, but since the hue and cry raised against intervention by foreigners, gun-running died out. Since then the supply of arms and ammunition to the rebels stopped, and only a weak and irregular supply by smuggling from the Government areas remained. But this,

too, was crushed by the vigilant military police and civilian police. The gradual exhaustion of weapons on the side of the rebels had weakened their morale which led to the split among the rebel groups. This was most manifest at Prome, the rebel capital till its recent liberation. The town was "governed" by the Communists, the army deserters, and the White Band People's Volunteer Organisation (P.V.O.). (The Karen rebels were ruling the Middle Burma town of Toungoo.) The Communists manoeuvred to get into key positions in the administration and tried to get hold of the army deserters. The P.V.O., who though Marxists are not Communists, had then wanted to surrender to the Government and resented Communist domination. The split, which started as usual with misunderstandings and pin-pricks, had flared up into open opposition, and as a result much of the rebels' strength had been neutralised by this conflict.

Above all, the people themselves realised after three-odd years of insurrections spread all over the country that Communist ideologies could not be applied to Burma without detriment to the country and its people. The much-talked-of New Democracy was "practised" by the rebels in their areas of occupation, and the people had soon become thoroughly disgusted with it. They could only see the element of Fascism with which they were so familiar under the Japanese. This realisation made for the withdrawal of support by the people in occupied areas and paved the way to active resistance which resulted in the coming into existence of "Freedom Guerillas" who helped the Government troops in various ways.

With the completion of the scheduled period, the plan has shown itself to be highly successful. The Prime Minister has claimed 95 per cent success, but foreign observers have allowed it only 75 per cent, and the difference is merely in terms of personal safety. It must be admitted that the remnants of the rebel forces, turned into bandits, would be causing considerable trouble in the countryside, as has now been the case since a few weeks after the fall of rebel-held major towns, but it cannot be denied that the rebels as units of armed resistance to the Government are fast fading out of the picture.

With the return of peace, the Government and the people will have to work all the harder to maintain order and concentrate on rehabilitation, which is in fact more challenging than the insurrections. "Rehabilitation Brigades" are being formed and a mass education movement has been inaugurated. The Burmese Government has decided to extend the target date to July 19th next year, not only to wipe out the vestiges of insurrection but to bring Burma back to pre-war normalcy and to economic well-being.

TRANSITION STAGE IN CHINA

by Lewis Gen (Hong Kong)

THE Communists have now established firm control over continental China, including Hainan, the big island off the Liuchow Peninsula of Kwangtung. This was not done through compromise or intrigues but by sheer military superiority. The Kuomintang armies on the continent were totally disarmed and reorganised, and the numerous warlords, local as well as Chiang Kai-shek's, were equally liquidated. If some of the former warlords, like Gen. Lu Han of Yunnan and Gen. Liu Wen-kwei of Western Szechuan, were received into the Red camp through defection, they were then so handled that they will for ever lose the power of independence.

Now in the field of national economy the Communists have scored another victory hardly less astonishing. When this country was taken over from Chiang Kai-shek and his clique, it was flooded with paper money, the cities having been stripped of their gold and valuable materials, and the countryside of its foodstuffs and able-bodied males. Ships and airplanes they took away with them, and railway bridges and mines were destroyed. It was a picture of desolation and confusion, in which the strong pillaged the weak without mercy and without shame. While the war was still in progress the Chinese Communists, in addition to their own vast army and civil personnel, had also to feed two million disarmed troops and half a million civil servants left behind by the former regime; for to discharge the latter would leave them to starvation and turn loose the former would simply add so many bandits in the countryside. Mao Tse-tung fully realised this difficult situation when he grimly decreed, "Let three persons' food be shared with five." Before the Red Army crossed the Yangtze River, the J.M.P. (Communist banknote) was comparatively steady; but with the capture of Shanghai, especially after the fall of Canton, it began to drop down rapidly, and by the end of last year the inflation was so bad that some independent observers began to wonder if it would not ruin the Communists altogether. But the surviving power of new regime proves much stronger than that the Kuomintang rulers ever possessed. They admitted the serious situation, but by no means despaired. They set their whole heart and might upon reducing the huge amount of banknotes by compulsory sale of victory bonds on the one hand, and by crushing taxation on the other. In less than four months, not only was the ruinous inflation arrested but commodity prices everywhere in Communist China dropped down by twenty to fifty per cent or more.

However, the writer is not blind to the hardship and suffering of the general masses from crushing, grievous taxes and unemployment. Many wealthy people and those who were too closely connected with the K.M.T. officials had fled the country long before the arrival of the Reds; so had the numerous local chieftains who ruled the countryside for dozens of years. Industries and business, due to the

long civil war, were already dislocated before Shanghai changed hands, and then with the blockade enforced by the K.M.T. against the Communist coasts, both were virtually brought to a standstill. There is another fact that further aggravates the situation. Long under foreign domination and K.M.T. exploitation, the industrial order in the big cities, especially Shanghai, was serving other interests than those of the masses. This being definitely against the policy of the Communists, they would rather seek to ruin than help to maintain industries or business which they considered non-essential. Further still, owing to the poor prospects of business in China and the uncertainties of diplomatic relations between China and certain other countries, many foreigners have left Shanghai, thus throwing more people out of work. (Now with the Nationalist blockade lifted and the Communist authorities doing their utmost in adjusting the relations between the state and private enterprise, business in Shanghai has already shown some signs of revival and the hopes of many foreigners begin to rise.)

The Communists, it seems, are both too sweeping and uncompromising in their social reform programme. They want to clear out the "parasite class" all at once. Not only the armed robbers, thieves, racketeers, tramps, gamblers, opium smokers and prostitutes, but also lawyers, monks and nuns were suddenly stripped of their means of living. All this added to the heavy taxes and compulsory sale of victory bonds, it is easy to imagine why a large portion of the people under the Communist rule hate the Communists heartily, and that anti-Communist feeling runs high in Hong Kong, where most of the victims of Communism take refuge.

Ever since the early years of the Republic, the countryside of China had been perpetually under the rule of bandits and local chieftains—usually not so much different in substance—and the former government, corrupt and weak, usually made use of the one and connived at the other. But the Communists are absolutely intolerant with both. Wherever they have driven out the K.M.T. regulars, they begin to wipe out the bandits and to disarm the local chieftains.

The country people are by no means happier than the townsfolk, for the Communists are just as ruthless in acquisitioning rice from the peasants as they are in exacting taxes from the shopkeepers. Undoubtedly this is absolutely necessary if the Communist regime is to survive at all; for to feed a vast army of four million and an additional million civil servants, old and new, it could not possibly be done otherwise. It should be pointed out, however, that the burden falls rather upon the landlords and the nominal tenants (mostly local chieftains), for the peasants were never allowed to keep more than enough to maintain a miserable existence, whether during the Japanese occupation or under the K.M.T. regime,

The recent famine in Communist China was one of those familiar scourges which the country experiences from time to time. In the past the government, for corruption and want of energy, never took up measures commensurate with the problem but were never ashamed to receive or constantly ask relief from foreign countries. But this attitude is hardly compatible with the spirit of the Communists, who could not beg or receive relief at the hand of that country which continually supplies their deadly enemy with weapons. Yet, the effect of the famine was largely reduced by the unprecedented organisation of the masses by the Communists as well as by the country-wide campaign for relief and production of fast-growing by-crops. Not only were the peasants in every way encouraged or compelled to raise food, but whole divisions of soldiers were also turned to production, breaking up idle land, raising chickens, pigs, catching fish, or growing melons and vegetables. So, while much publicity was given to the severity and extent of the famine in Communist China, we have not heard of any great number of deaths through starvation like there were during the Japanese occupation or before the war under the K.M.T. rule.

The famine was further greatly alleviated by another powerful factor. Whereas the whole strategy of the Nationalist General Staff, especially Gen. Pai Chung-shi, who once enjoyed the fame of being the best strategist in China, seemed to consist in continuous retreat and in the destruction of communications, the Communists have been made as famous for the rapid restoration of the same. The railway bridges and tunnels along the Peking-Hankow and Canton-Hankow railway, as well as those in East China, were all thoroughly destroyed following the retreat of the Nationalists, but the Communists rapidly repaired them wherever they advanced. Now, with the railway system of the whole country brought under a single control, vast quantities of foodstuffs can be, and actually have been, transported into the famine areas from Manchuria and also from the rice-producing provinces.

In view of its ideology and the history of the Communist movement in China, it is but natural that the Peking rulers should lean to Soviet Russia, but that does not need to make them hostile to other nations. They are just as willing to enter into diplomatic relations with other countries, but to be based upon mutual respect of sovereignty and on an equal footing. In spite of the opposition of the U.S. Government to Peking, Americans still live peacefully in Red China, and the American oil merchants and shipping companies carry on their business as usual. Foreign newsmen who recently got out of Shanghai all admitted that they were not bothered in any way except that they were not allowed to send out news or travel to any other city without first obtaining permission from the local authorities.

It is true that many foreigners have left China, particularly Shanghai, but that was because of the blockade and the planned economy enforced by the government, in which both Chinese businessmen and foreigners suffered alike. It is significant that with the exception of several American officials, we have so far not heard of any foreigner getting into trouble with the Communists. If the Communist officials are not so respectful or servile to foreigners as the former Kuomintang officials, they are at least, as witnessed

by both the American and French news-men, correct and courteous in their dealings with them. It seems fair to say that foreigners in Red China are not worse treated than the common Chinese people, nor, probably than the average Chinese nationals in Western countries. The truth is that, in China, foreigners no longer enjoy special favour or privileges as they did before; but so long as they respect the law of the country, they are free from trouble. Of course, this is hard enough to bear for those who used to live among the Chinese as a privileged class.

However, the position of the Catholic missionaries in Red China may not be a very happy one. Not only has the Pope solemnly declared the Church against world Communism, but it should not be forgotten that in many parts of China, especially along the Great Wall, Catholic communities were once almost independent states. They owned big tracts of land and, for self-protection, possessed strong militia forces often equipped with heavy arms. Therefore, some of their worldly interests must have inevitably come into conflict with the policy of the Communist Government; and unless they can find enough solace in things spiritual, they must feel ill at ease. It is by now clear that the Communists do not interfere in purely religious matters, yet it is quite as certain that they look upon religion with disapproval. For the Communists, firmly believing that man can master his destiny through sheer struggle, do not want the Chinese masses for ever to doze in resignation or fatalism.

The avowed aim and purpose of the Chinese Communists is to communise China, beginning with what is called "New Democracy." In practice it means that in the country the farming land of the big landlords is being redistributed to the landless peasants; that in the cities big industries, exports and imports must be either run by the state or brought under state control; and that non-essential or surplus enterprises must in the meantime be eliminated. To stabilise the living of the city populations they are further setting up vast corporations to monopolise foodstuffs and other commodities necessary to life. They are also starting numerous consumers' co-operative societies, in the cities as well as in the country. For the success of their vast programme they rely upon the solid strength of the masses—landless peasants in the country and labour unions in the cities. Along with lands the peasants are also given arms to protect their own interests; and in the factories the workers are given as much voice in the management as the owners. As the instrument to achieve their purpose they use two powerful levels of socialisation—high taxation and harsh acquisition of rice.

O. M. Green, in the March issue of *EASTERN WORLD*, compares the Communist Government with the vigorous but brief rule of the first great Emperor in Chinese history, which is indeed an observation showing some admirable insight. But the Communists, for their final success, do not rely upon a school of legalists. They strive to perpetuate their rule by securing the support through indoctrination, of the young generation. Barring some major change in international relations, China must go through her tremendous experiment even if many people have to suffer during the transition stage.

EDUCATION AT THE GRASS-ROOTS

by Tony Gibson

THREE years ago, when I was in Chinese Communist territory on a brief visit, I found my way to a village which had only recently been "liberated." More important, I went with an American who could read as well as speak Chinese, and between us we managed to slip our cable, and to steer clear of the official "guide" who had dogged our footsteps until then. We found our way into what at first we thought was a derelict Chinese temple—until we discovered the rickety benches, and the ink slabs, and the tattered primers which showed that this, though it might once have been a temple, was now a school. The children were out in the fields. But as we wandered around, fingering the books, leafing them over, trying to discover what they were all about, we heard a shy, hesitant cough, and looked up to see, coming from the shadowed recess in which he had been taking a matutinal rest, a very old gentleman with a wispy grey beard and thick-lensed spectacles, who looked as if he might have come to us direct from invigilating in a T'ang dynasty examination hall. For a long time we exchanged courtesies in the old-style tradition, and then began to pump him gently about his school. He told us how many children, and what proportion of time was spent in the fields, and what in the class-room, and how many subjects, and then, my friend having browsed meanwhile among the text-books, and discovered some interesting political parables, we moved on to ask about the ways in which the new regime was working out. The old gentleman, though still cautious, was beginning to expand, and to explain about the village council which had been established, and the education sub-committee which was now his master, when he suddenly stopped short. We looked up and discovered two young men had arrived from the village. They introduced themselves courteously to us, but only brusquely acknowledged the presence of the school-teacher. They were from the village council, and they had come to make quite sure that we were getting the "correct picture."

In fact, the picture they gave us was much the same as that we had already heard, though with more literary trimmings, from the old gentleman. The new government had taken over the old-style school, along with the old-style school-master, issued him with new-style textbooks, broadened the range of children who came to school by arranging more part-time facilities, so that children could work to help their families as well as learn in the school, and in place of the variable stipend which the old man used to get from the contributions of the richer landlords, and the remnants of the Nationalist Government education funds after they had passed through the sticky hands of the *hsien-chang*, the village council now guaranteed him a stipend based on a grain standard, and therefore varying directly with the cost of living.

But the interesting feature of this encounter was not

so much the content of the conversation, or even the ingeniously oblique and colourful propaganda in the school textbooks. What impressed us most was the difference in the treatment accorded to the teacher himself. At the moment of our first meeting, he had despatched one child who was working nearby to fetch tea with which to entertain us. The child returned just after the village council representatives arrived, and presented himself to the teacher with the ceremonial full kowtow of Old China—a combined salute to age and learning. The two village council representatives, still in their 'teens, saluted the old man with casual familiarity, and for most of their conversation with us remained with their backs to him. And yet they too were earnest, enthusiastic, anxiously concerned to improve the educational facilities in the district, and full of plans to extend the service they had already begun.

This kind of encounter may perhaps explain in part why when I began to read the prosaically titled *Notes on Educational Problems in Communist China* (International Research Fund, Institute of Pacific Relations), I found myself so gripped by the story. This confession is further explained by the fact that the longest and most important section in the book is written by Michael Lindsay, who must now rank, next to Robert Payne I suppose, as the shrewdest, most authoritative, and most penetrating writer on the new China. Mr. Lindsay permits no stylistic decorations in his narrative, and provides no rhetorical flourishes in his concluding section. He writes as a scholar—not a journalist. And yet, because of his long first-hand experience of Chinese Communism in the field, he gets nearer than anyone else I have come across to an explanation and an interpretation of the paradoxes and



War-time class in systematic botany, Shansi Area

the achievements of this strange mixture of textbook doctrines, young ardour and peasant commonsense.

Mr. Lindsay begins with an admirable summary of the development of the Chinese Communist Party since its foundation in 1921, and the evolution under its aegis of the "New Chinese Democracy" which is officially the basis on which the present Chinese Government rests. This summary helps the reader to see the influences which have shaped Chinese Communist educational policy, and made it the mainspring of both military and economic achievement. It is pointed out that unlike all the Communist parties of the West, the party in China had to grapple with the practical problems of independent administration from within three years of its foundation. Every step in policy since then has perforce been based, not on the airy interpretations of Marxist doctrine, made by a rebel opposition without the responsibilities of government, but on the immediate problems involved in running a government on a shoe-string, and staffing it with peasant leaders and refugee students who had to acquire their experience and their knowledge as they went along.

Despite, or perhaps because of the challenges of these difficulties, it appears that the proportion of literacy in the Communist areas is, if anything, greater than that in territory until recently occupied by the Nationalists. However, University standards are relatively much lower—by Western measures of education—because of the shortage of teachers, apparatus and books. (A friend of mine who was working in one of the Communist "bush" Universities wrote describing the care with which scraps of newspaper were in packing some of his luggage were treasured and filed in the University library.) Another factor was the deliberate admixture of "practical" education in which students and professors alike were encouraged to "get their hands dirty" in working a proportion of their time in the fields, or the machine shops, in helping to staff rough-and-ready clinics, or in taking part as assistant administrators in the organisation of "land reform" schemes in newly occupied districts. For, as Mr. Lindsay points out, Chinese Communism has expressly rejected the Western educational tradition as being inappropriate to modern China.

"It was argued that the sort of educational system which both the Kuomintang Government and to a large extent also (at first) the Liberated Area Government had been trying to set up, was unsuited to China. . . . In an economically advanced country a considerable degree of education was economically necessary even for the ordinary worker because . . . the social process of production needed a considerable proportion of the population with the more advanced forms of training given by secondary or university education. . . . The development of the Chinese education system could not proceed independently of the development of Chinese society and Chinese economy. . . . The elements of education—simple literacy and arithmetic—would have to be given as cheaply as possible without too much reduction in labour available for production. . . . Even more important than training children was giving further instruction to people who were already working but needed more education to do their work better. The school system must, therefore, be capable of taking in at every stage above the elementary school level, people with practical experience who needed more theoretical education."

On this basis, Chinese Communist educational policy has developed experimentally, empirically, varying in its methods from region to region, but always concerned to use local opportunities—the old-style Kuomintang schools and teachers, for instance—and to direct available teaching resources to immediate practical ends. The new village councils must include men able to read government directives. Farmers must be helped in their work of food production by courses on the introduction of new types of crops, and new methods of cultivation suitable to the locality.

Permeating this intensively practical education, there is political indoctrination. But, as Mr. Lindsay points out in one of the most interesting passages of his work, the main drive of the Chinese Communist leadership is to use Marxism as a science instead of a religion. Marxist theory is to be applied to all the administrative and educational problems of the new regime. But it is to be the servant, not the master. Its application in any field is determined after long and arduous discussion, and the decisive factor is the situation obtaining in the particular district at a particular time. The whole achievement of Chinese Communism in gaining the support of guerilla fighters, peasant administrators, student refugees, has depended throughout on the subtle blending of textbook doctrine with a long experience of practical administration, and with a masterly understanding of the psychology of the ordinary, non-Communist Chinese on whose freely-given support everything hinges.

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LONDON NOTEBOOK

INDIA'S ECONOMIC POSITION

Sir Kikabhai Premchand reminded the members of the East India Association whom he addressed on September 8, that 21 years had elapsed since he last gave a lecture to that body which had done so much to spread a fuller understanding of the two great countries which are so intimately associated with each other and the members of the Commonwealth. While gratefully appreciating the work that has been done by the Government of India since independence in maintaining the fabric of the administration and fully recognising that the present situation was good compared to that which existed in neighbouring countries, Sir Kikabhai said he deplored, as a Bombay man, that the former spirit of adventure and boldness in enterprise had damped down and that those who should continue to play a foremost part in the industrial growth of India should be content to "stay put" instead of launching into still greater constructive work.

He said that whilst the idealism of Pandit Nehru and the administrative strength of Sardar Patel commands appreciation, these are not enough and that neither will succeed unless based on a wise economic policy. Merchants and traders have been puzzled, discouraged and disheartened, and there was no evidence of the capacity of the Government to take a long view. Controls and war-time restrictions have not been relaxed to anything like the same measure as in other countries; fresh restrictions have been imposed; and there was a resulting paralysis of trade stifling the spirit of enterprise which ought to be dominant in a country where there is so much to be done. The burden of these conditions fell with special weight on the middle classes who form the backbone and most stable element in the population.

In dealing with the question of the overseas requirements of India, Sir Kikabhai pointed out that India is starved of capital goods. Huge sums are needed for the replacement of

machinery in the established industries—machinery which is obsolete or worn out by the strain of war-time production. Not less are the claims of the new industries which have been launched or planned as essential for progress of a balanced industrial State. Much of this must be provided by imports from the dollar and the sterling areas. In view of this clamant need, the sterling and dollar reserves should have been husbanded with jealous care.



Miss Mary Woon of Singapore, Malaya's only woman police inspector, who is now in London to study British Police methods

In his opinion, too, there was another drain on these overseas resources which had formed the subject of strong criticism. A recent report spoke of the "colossal" expenditure on embassies and ministries to countries abroad, amounting to crores of rupees. Whilst he refused to endorse the adjective "colossal," it appeared that these were luxuries the nation could afford as long as its needs for permanent equipment were restricted by import controls.

CHINESE CULTURE IN LONDON

The Universities' China Committee have made the China Institute at 16, Gordon Square into the centre for Chinese culture in London. They have

now arranged an exhibition there of contemporary Chinese paintings by Professor Chi Pei-sheh, Pu Hsing-yu, Chen Chun-fu and Wu Yung-hsiang, which remains open until the end of October.

ART AND LETTERS FROM INDIA AND PAKISTAN

The Royal India, Pakistan and Ceylon Society has taken advantage of the International P.E.N. Conference to invite two of the delegates to give lectures. Jasim-Ud-Din, the poet, spoke on September 11 on the "Folk Literature of East Pakistan," of which very little is known in this country, while on September 18, at the Islamic Cultural Centre, Begum Shaista Suhrawady Ikramulla lectured on the "Form and Content of Urdu Poetry."

EAST AND WEST IN RELIGIOUS THOUGHT

The World Congress of Faiths gathered at Cambridge on September 15 to discuss modern trends in religious thought. The proceedings commenced with a short service at which the Swami Avyaktananda, the Ven. Bikkhu U. Thittila, Imam Dr. S. M. Abdullah and the Rev. R. G. Coulson read from world scriptures.

"THE PROMISE OF PAKISTAN"

The latest issue of the American-sponsored "March of Time" is devoted to "The Promise of Pakistan." The title is apt, for Pakistan is one of the few countries of Asia to have a favourable balance of trade with the hard-money nations of the world. In the film, we see her people working in the fields, gathering in the jute, cotton, and wheat, which are her chief exports. One is made aware of the backwardness of her agricultural methods. Machinery is only seen being unloaded at Chittagong, in East Pakistan, while in the fields it is conspicuously absent.

Village life has been given a new purpose. Everywhere, the schoolmaster has become an important man, since old and young are grappling with the fundamentals of the Urdu language. The modern airport at Karachi stands out as the symbol of the Pakistan-to-be in a film which suffers from having its feeling too near the surface to make it memorable.



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BOOKS on the

The Genesis of Pakistan by K. SARWAR HASAN (Karachi: Pakistan Institute of International Affairs, Rs. 1-8.)

Pakistan and the Commonwealth by K. SARWAR HASAN (Karachi: Pakistan Institute of International Affairs, Rs. 1-8.)

Birth Pangs of New Kashmir by N. S. PHADKE (Bombay: Hind Kitabs, Rs. 8.)

Whither Kashmir? (The Diplomatic Press and Publishing Co., 1s.)

The four pamphlets under review offer an interesting commentary on international relations in the sub-continent of India at a time when apparently more critical developments are taking place in Korea. The need, however, for cementing friendship between India and Pakistan by resolving the two outstanding sources of friction, namely, the question of Kashmir's future and the problem of the communal minorities, remains as urgent as ever, and should these differences between the two dominions not be settled amicably the implications for the peace, not only of South East Asia but for Europe as well, would be as perilous as those engendered by the armed conflict in Korea.

It has always been recognised that the division between Hindu and Muslim amounted to more than a difference in religious forms of belief, but until the adoption in 1940 by the Muslim League of Jinnah's resolution demanding a separate state of Pakistan, it had been hoped that a constitution for independent India could be evolved in which the two communities would live side by side as members of one nation. The author of *The Genesis of Pakistan* contends that there never was such a thing as an Indian nation and that the Hindus and the Muslims are altogether separate communities, each exclusive of the other. He traces the growth of the Muslim League founded at Dacca in 1906 to protect the interests of the Muslim community in the ensuing struggle for home rule initiated by Congress, and shows how, with the exception of a brief rapprochement between the two parties from 1916-19, the attitude of the Muslim League to independence has been dominated by the fear of the political repercussions of a Hindu majority. The British Cabinet Mission Plan of May 1946, proposed a Union of India with the provinces brought together into three groups; two groups consisting of the Muslim majority provinces of the north-west and north-east, and one group consisting of the Hindu majority provinces in the centre. This plan envisaged three groups in the Union instead of the two which Jinnah had proposed in his memorandum of May 12th, but it is significant that in both cases the idea of a sovereign Muslim state was shelved. The sad story of communal violence which attended the deadlock between Congress and the Muslim League over the interpretation of the Cabinet plan is well known, and although the outrages can in no way be attributed to the official policies of either of the main parties, it is possible to see in them, as the author of the pamphlet claims, a certain indication of Muslim fears as to the security of their lives and property in an undivided independent India.

The pamphlet by the same writer on *Pakistan and the*

FAR EAST

Commonwealth is interesting for its statement of a new conception of Commonwealth made necessary by the inclusion of its Asian members. Hitherto, the Commonwealth has been thought of as an organic growth drawing its strength from an association of countries with a common way of life and a community of interests based on their allegiance to the Crown. The association remains, but its former basis has given way to considerations of self-interest and convenience. The author of the pamphlet insists that the Commonwealth is not an organisation for common political action in the international sphere, and that each member retains for itself the right to pursue its own foreign policy, but at the same time he realises the illogicality of the situation in which, by the pursuit of opposed policies, two member nations are brought into conflict with one another. This is the situation which has arisen between India and Pakistan over the question of Kashmir, and for the first time in its history the Commonwealth presents the spectacle of one member state invoking the aid of an external authority to regulate its relations with another member.

The presence of Russian forces on the borders of Afghanistan and Sinkiang, and the strong appeal exercised by Communism in conditions of poverty and rising food prices, make it imperative that the sources of antagonism between India and Pakistan should be removed, and that the greater part of the central revenue of each country should cease to be devoted to armaments. It is therefore particularly disturbing to read in the pamphlet under review that Pakistan's major problem of defence is that of defence against India. In this context the future of Kashmir becomes of considerable importance, and the two pamphlets published by the Hind Kitabs Co. of Bombay and the Diplomatic Press of London are a contribution to the discussion of the merits of this case.

Professor Phadke in *Birth Pangs of New Kashmir*, has done nothing to further the cause of a peaceful settlement of the Kashmir problem; the tone of the pamphlet is hectoring and irresponsible, and betrays a tendency to rely on a resolution of the issue by force of arms in defiance of the Security Council's recommendations. In contrast with the partisan nature of this pamphlet the author of *Whither Kashmir?* has attempted to clarify the problem for the ordinary reader by briefly outlining the history and background of the Kashmiri people, and by providing a summary of the steps taken by the Security Council to bring about a truce and the necessary conditions for the holding of a plebiscite. In a question involving such conflicting sympathies and dominated by a variety of extraneous interests, it is difficult to remain impartial, and the wide divergence in points of view is represented on the one hand by Professor Phadke, who is at a loss to account for the fuss made about so simple a matter as the desire of Kashmir to be free under the aegis of India, and, on the other, by the author of *Whither Kashmir?* who can detect nothing but obtuseness in the need for adjudicating upon the future of a state whose population is 77 per cent Muslim and whose economic and geographical connections are all with Pakistan.

MICHAEL WHEELER

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A History of China by WOLFRAM EBERHARD (Routledge and Kegan Paul, 21s.)

To many Western readers acquainted with other works on China and the Far East, this new history will come as a shock. The author, who is Professor in the University of California, calls his work a realistic history and a sociological study. This it is; but some of the conclusions reached cannot be supported on scientific grounds. For example, the last word is far from having been written on the age of Chinese civilisation or the date of its beginning. We quite agree with the author when he says that the test and value of a culture or a civilisation do not depend on its great age or length of life; none the less, there are more ways than one of reaching the truth and there are errors at times in the interpretation of such archaeological evidence as we have. If former historians of China have been too partisan or too emotional in their writing, there are many who will feel that Professor Eberhard has essayed the almost impossible task of being entirely and scientifically objective.

Having said so much we must admit that there was room for such a book. We think the author is a little hard on the members of the Board of Censors of earlier days (to whom we owe the twenty-five dynastic histories of China) and we think it would be difficult to substantiate his assertion that these are dominated by an ethical philosophy which, to some extent, distorts their historical objectivity. In so far as almost everything written in ancient China was, consciously or not, tinged with something of the prevailing ethic of the time, Professor Eberhard's thesis has some basis; but the fact remains that for the most part no other division of the earth can show histories so coldly (even boringly) detailed and objective as are the dynastic histories of China. Their ethical content is so small as to be negligible; the wealth of factual and sociological data is such that all modern studies on China's past, conducted according to modern scientific practice, find in them all the raw material that could be desired.

It is refreshing to find within the compass of fewer than four hundred pages so much clear definition of the standing and contribution of successive dynasties and periods to the sum total of what China was and has become. For Professor Eberhard the Chinese nation has embarked these many centuries on the voyage of discovery which will ultimately lead to the solution of many vital problems — such solution being an essential condition to her continued survival. That China has not yet found the full answer few will be prepared to deny; that she has gone further along that road than most of her contemporaries, ancient and modern, is a fairly reasonable conclusion from all the evidence.

There are a few minor errors which should be corrected in future editions. In the notes of pages 354-5 the name of Professor H. H. Dubs is twice mis-spelled "Dubbs," and on page 356 the important *Gems of Chinese Literature* is attributed to the son (L. Giles) instead of to his father, the late Professor H. A. Giles.

The author shows in his splendid work the spirit of that true scholarship which has always animated the best of China's own writers. If he has reacted too sharply and too far here and there from the writings of the sentimentalists it may be that his pardonable irritation with their effusions has led him to slight excesses on the side of caution.

NEVILLE WHYMANT

Chinese Jade Carving by S. HOWARD HANSFORD (*Lund Humphries, 25s.*)

As he mentions in the preface, the substance of Professor Hansford's book was outlined in public lectures at the Courtauld Institute of Art in 1947, and there is no question that this finely produced volume is an important contribution to the study of a most fascinating subject, especially as the author, in addition to giving a detailed account of the technique of the Chinese jade craftsmen, includes much significant information concerning the sources and nature of the two chief stones in which they work. The problem as to whether or not jade has ever been mined in Shensi and Yün-nan, for example, is one on which leading experts have never been able to reach agreement, and in an effort to solve such riddles Professor Hansford has spent many years in research, his enquiries taking him not only to the museums and libraries of Britain and the United States but also to the shops of the master carvers of Peking.

These visits to watch and talk with the jade craftsmen were surprisingly successful in view of the lengths to which earlier generations of carvers are known to have gone in order to safeguard their interests and the secrets of their trade, and Professor Hansford was even able to secure photographs illustrating the methods and tools employed in the preparation of abrasives, the polishing of figures, and so on—a particularly valuable achievement when we consider how much time may elapse before scholars are once again allowed to travel freely in China with a similar purpose in mind. Besides numerous maps, diagrams, and reproductions of selected examples of carved jade, a comprehensive bibliography lists some 150 titles consulted or referred to by the author in the writing of his book, and the actual treatment, whilst no doubt intended in the first instance to appeal to the specialist, can hardly fail to entertain those whose wish it is to learn something of men who, with extraordinary patience and skill, fashioned—and continue to fashion—ornaments and vessels of enduring worth. On those occasions where Professor Hansford disagrees with the theories of others, which are not infrequent, he invariably builds up a sound case to support his contentions, and one cannot escape the conclusion that here is an original work in the very best sense—accurate, reasoned, and exceptionally clear.

DAVID PARRY

Journal of the Ceylon Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society
(Members: Rs. 2-50; Non-Members: Rs. 4.)

The customary high level is maintained in the issue before us. Herbert Gunther opens the feast with a well-documented article on "Noun-inflection in Old Sinhalese." K. C. D. Perera contributes a note (with illustration) on an unpublished Adakahavanuva. Dr. Godakumbura offers two valuable contributions—an examination of the Culavamsa and a version of Yatimahana-sittuva. A particularly valuable paper for the historian of Ceylon is that of Mr. R. L. Brohier on Land, Maps and Surveys in maritime Ceylon during the Dutch Administration.

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Gauguin Colour plates, with an introduction by JEAN
TARALON (Paris: Editions du Chêne, frs. 800.)

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"Possessed" by a demon, Art, Gauguin threw up
friends, family and job and left France in 1891 to paint in
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island in the Marquesas. During this time he returned to
France once, in 1893, for a short visit.

From 1892 Gauguin was ostracised by the European
community and lived in poverty with the natives. Like
R. L. Stevenson he loved the islands and their people. He
learned their language and gave his paintings Tahitian
names. In his efforts to help them against colonial adminis-
trative abuses in the Marquesas, he wrote countless letters
to his friends in Paris begging them to intervene with the
ministries concerned.

"On top of the abominable sufferings from my illness, I
have on my hands a terrible fight with the administration and
the police. Monstrous things are being done here in the
Marquesas, and I am on the verge of being thrown out for defy-
ing a gendarme and am accused of inciting the natives to
rebellion by telling them what their rights are."

(Letter to Charles Morice, February 1903)

In April 1903, his health already destroyed, he was
condemned to three months in prison and a fine of 1,000
francs for "provocation." This finished him. History (or
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the islanders, an old Marquesan chieftain sank to his knees
crying "Gauguin is dead, we are lost."

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found with them a family and a country.

MICHEL SALMON

Evolution de l'Art Antique by ALFRED LEROY (Paris:
Horizons de France).

Not only is this an authoritative and sympathetic intro-
duction to ancient art in general, but each style and national
achievement is set in the midst of its period and quality,
and then regarded carefully from all angles and judged.
We are, moreover, shown how neighbouring cultures inter-
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The chapters on Sumerian and Hittite art could not,
within their limits of space, be bettered. Assyro-Babylonian,
Persian and Phoenician art are well documented and illus-
trated.

The bibliography is comprehensive, and the 68 illus-
trations are superbly reproduced and well-chosen. There
are 16 folding maps to help the reader through the ancient
world whose treasures he is now sharing with the far-distant
past.

NEVILLE WHYMANT

REVIEW OF REVIEWS

MOST exciting reading of this month is Eleanor Lattimore's description of "What it was Like" when, in the absence of Owen Lattimore, Republican Senator McCarthy started his attack on this outstanding Far East expert accusing him of being a top Communist. It forms the second chapter of Owen Lattimore's book *Ordeal by Slander*, which is being published by Little, Brown & Co., Boston, U.S.A. The story, as reprinted in *Harper's Magazine* in its August issue, contains so many details of interest to students of Far Eastern affairs and, incidentally, American party politics with all their distortion of facts and perversion of truth, that it reads like a detective novel.

As was to be expected, monthlies and weeklies are full of attempts at explanation of the roots of the Korean conflict. Most helpful in this respect is Mr. Gull's re-statement of the basic elements which contributed to the build-up of the present political situation in the Far East. It is published in the September issue of *The Contemporary Review* which contains also an article on Korea by Vladimir de Korostowetz, who tries to explain the Soviet attitude historically but whose opinions fail to convince us, primarily, perhaps, because of a very superficial array of facts. To those who would like to see impartial and unbiased information on Korea, I should recommend the perusal of some articles by Prof. McCune and others in older issues of *Pacific Affairs*, turning also to the late Oswald Villard's article "We Must Face Korea Now" in *Asia and the Americas* of November, 1945, and Harold Sugg's "Watch Korea" in *Harper's Magazine* of January, 1947. Useful opinions on the same subject have been recently published also by the Paris weekly *L'Observateur*.

A highly interesting analysis of Japan's nutritional position is published by the London monthly *The Fortnightly*, whose American contributor, Marc. T. Greene, studies the relation of the country's agriculture to the increasing population and gives a wealth of facts creating social restiveness. Uncertainty and want prepare the ground for Communist activities, and though the efforts of the Americans to eliminate this "Danger-Point in Japan" are praiseworthy, it remains to be seen whether they will suffice to overcome Communist propaganda and action which is now being checked wherever possible.

In *Le Bulletin des Missions* we find a longish note on the infiltration of Moscow agents into the Viet Minh "Front," and another one on the role Europe-trained Chinese students have played and are still playing in Communist China.

Readers interested in the Pakistan viewpoint on world affairs should regularly read *Pakistan Horizon*, the quarterly published by the Pakistan Institute of International Affairs. Its December issue contains an article on "Burma and Pakistan," which share a common frontier. In the March issue we find the report of a lecture of Prof. Lattimore on "Recent Trends in Central Asia," a very good overall picture, and very informative studies of "Pakistan Trade with the United Kingdom" and her "Economic Relations with Japan."

London's *Zionist Review* regularly publishes feature articles concerned with the relations of Israel with India and Far Eastern countries, and the Jews still living there.

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In the *United Nations World Magazine* (August), Mary Saeltzer describes in an article based on personal experience, the slowly improving social position of women in South Korea.

I should also like to recommend to our readers the weekly edition of the Paris daily *Le Monde* whose Far Eastern correspondents are as competent as its Foreign

Editor. The same applies to Washington's fortnightly *The Reporter*. In its special "Crisis in Asia" issue (of July 18th) there are six articles on Indian and Far Eastern Affairs, among them one on "Korea: Moscow's Way Out" by William Costello, who sees in the invasion of South Korea a device of the Kremlin rulers to break a stalemate.

JOHN KENNEDY

THE TAIPING REBELLION

by Sir John Pratt, K.B.E., C.M.G.

New Light on the History of the Taiping Rebellion by SSU-YU-TENG (*Institute of Pacific Relations: Harvard University Press, \$1.75*).

THE Emperor Taoukang died in 1850 and was succeeded by Hsien Feng, a semi-imbecile degenerate, who tried to govern the Chinese Empire through a coterie of corrupt and incompetent Court favourites. In the same year the Taiping rebellion broke out in Kwangsi, and in March 1853 the rebels captured Nanking. It was known that a rebellion more serious than usual had been raging in the interior and vague rumours had reached Hong Kong that the rebels were a sect of Chinese Christians; but nothing certain was known about the peculiar religious tenets of the Taipings until April 1853, when Sir George Bonham, Governor of Hong Kong and British Plenipotentiary, visited Nanking in a warship. Hung Hsiu-chuan, the Taiping leader, had assumed the title of T'ien Wang, or Heavenly King, and had appointed six other Kings to assist him. On entering Nanking he had been formally proclaimed Emperor of China. He and his followers implicitly believed that he was the younger brother of Jesus Christ, that he had been divinely commissioned to become Emperor of China and to effect the salvation of mankind, and that God the Father and Jesus the Heavenly Elder Brother frequently came down from heaven to advise and direct him. A process of gradual disintegration soon set in, the Taiping leaders began to lead idle, extravagant and licentious lives, and this strange parody of Christianity became more and more grotesque. They assigned to God the Father a human body and many of the attributes of a human being; they believed that the Virgin Mary was his wife in heaven and that she was the mother of several other sons besides Jesus. They assigned to Jesus Christ a wife selected from the Chinese pantheon, and they thought that the Virgin Mary might have a pretty younger sister who would be a suitable wife for Hung Hsiu-chuan. Though monogamy was made the rule for the rank and file, Hung Hsiu-chuan provided himself with a harem of 80 wives and several hundred concubines selected from the women attending the religious services, and it was made an offence punishable with instant decapitation to report outside events into the harem or to mention the names and ranks of any of its inmates.

Hung presently withdrew almost entirely from public view and confined himself to communicating to his followers, in the form of commands, the revelations he received from time to time. The work of administration and command fell into the hands of Yang Hsiu-ching, the Eastern King, who announced that he was the Holy Ghost and that

he too received revelations direct from the Heavenly Father and the Heavenly Elder Brother. A force was sent north to capture Peking while Hung Hsiu-ching remained with his harem in Nanking. It reached a point twenty miles from Tientsin and a second force was sent to aid it. Both forces evacuated their positions in March 1855 and retreated southward. Dissensions then broke out in Nanking. Yang's behaviour daily became more arrogant, until eventually Hung, while outwardly supporting his authority, secretly summoned Wei Ch'ang-hui, the Northern King, to kill him. The slaughter began on September 2nd, 1856, and in the course of the next three months Yang and some twenty to thirty thousand of his adherents, including all the members of his family, were massacred. When Shih Ta-kai, the Assistant King, who is described as the ablest commander in the Taiping armies, objected to this savagery, Wei planned to kill him also. He made his escape, but his wife and children, whom he left behind, were killed by Wei. A few months later Wei and two hundred of his adherents were killed by Hung Hsiu-cheng at Shih's request after two months' fighting.

But for the corruption, cowardice and cruelty of the government forces sent against them the Taipings might easily have been suppressed. In 1860 Peking was occupied by French and British armies and the Emperor fled to Jehol. The fortunes of the Taipings then revived. They broke out of Nanking and took possession of the fertile and populous region between Nanking and the sea. British, French and American forces intervened to save the great city of Shanghai from destruction and the famous Tseng Kuo-fan took charge of operations. Local levies with a sense of personal loyalty to Tseng were employed instead of government troops, and the Ever Victorious Army was organised with the help of foreign soldiers of fortune. In 1863 Gordon was appointed to the command of the Ever Victorious Army, and in the following year Nanking was captured. Hung Hsiu-cheng committed suicide, the rebels were finally subdued and by 1868 the last scattered remnants of them had been massacred.

During 18 years of carnage twenty million human beings had been destroyed and nine great provinces devastated. Ruined cities, desolated towns and heaps of rubble marked the course of the Taiping hordes from Kwangsi to Tientsin, a distance of two thousand miles. Their presence was an unmitigated scourge attended by nothing but disaster from beginning to end without the least effort on their part to rebuild what had been destroyed. Weeds and jungle covered the ground once tilled by patient industry, and wild beasts roamed at large over the land and made their

dens in the deserted towns. The Imperial Rescript on the memorial reporting the suicide of Hung Hsiu-cheng expressed the feelings of the Chinese people: "Words cannot convey any idea of the misery and desolation he caused. The measure of his iniquity was full and the wrath of both Gods and men was roused against him."

Until recently it was the generally accepted view that Tseng Kuo-fan, with the aid of Gordon and others, saved Chinese civilisation from complete collapse. But a different view is now the fashion in what Dr. Teng calls "liberal minded" circles. History has been rewritten by students who employ the jargon of Marx's materialistic interpretation of history and who eagerly accept Sun Yat Sen's flattering but pernicious doctrine that China's downfall in the nineteenth century was due, not to defects in the Chinese character, but to the oppression of the Manchus. The Taipings, they point out, raised the standard of revolt against the Manchus; therefore Tseng Kuo-fan, who suppressed them, is a butcher and a traitor. "Scholars with progressive ideas" hail the Taiping movement as an anti-feudal revolution, the forerunner of the capitalistic-democratic revolution and strenuous efforts are made to show that the Taipings had many admirable social and political ideas relating to land, the position of women, taxation and so on. In order to prove that "the Taiping land system and social organisation may have been put into practice for a short time" Dr. Teng quotes from a passage in Brine's "The Taiping Rebellion in China." The whole passage is as follows:—

"The reports of Lord Elgin's mission show how disastrous was the effect of the Taiping rebellion upon that portion of the

country that felt its influence. Hankow, Hanyang and Wuchang were found to be little else than three enormous ruins. In the latter city Lord Elgin gives us an idea of its state of desolation by mentioning that whilst walking through it he had flushed two brace and a half of pheasants in the very centre of the town. The places held by the Taipings were remarkable for their total want of commercial activity. At Woo-hoo the houses were divided according to a kind of barrack system, a certain number being told off amongst the various companies of fighting men. The surrounding country was found to be desolated and the inhabitants in a deplorable state of misery."

From this passage Dr. Teng quotes one sentence only: "At Woo-hoo the houses were divided according to a kind of barrack system," and he blandly explains, "this shows the practice of the local social organisation."

Other passages quoted by Dr. Teng from various sources suffice to make it clear why China collapsed so ignominiously before the impact of the west. Her leaders were too fully occupied in betraying and massacring each other to pay attention to reforms and, until the Communists rose to power there was never anything that could be called a national army or indeed any kind of soldiers that were not a greater menace to the peasants than to the enemy. These unpleasant but salutary truths are ignored by "liberal minded" scholars. The Chinese, however, are not the only people who rewrite their history in the form of patriotic fiction. English historians, for example, conceal the truth about the opium war, and children in the United States are still brought up to believe that Americans are the only virtuous people.

ON A HIGHWAY OF OLD CATHAY

by N. Poulson

A PEKING cart moved slowly along the Great Sea Road between the fishing town of Taku and Tientsin. In its shafts a pony had all it could do, with the assistance of a mule tugging strenuously at the traces in front, to keep it going; for rain had changed the soil into thick, pasty mud, which came up from the ruts and clung to the wheels in large slabs, to be thrown off at each turn only to come up again and again, as if Mother Earth had entered a conspiracy to tackle and hold the vehicle. But it crawled steadily forward, nevertheless, as the driver, seated on the near side in front of the cloth-covered hood, waved a whip, shouted "da" and "wo-a" to urge on the straining animals, and occasionally flicked the leader with the lash. At times, when a footpath offered, he would slip off his seat and walk, his whip held high and his tongue ever busy with "da's" and "wo-a's," scraps of conversation with an old gentleman who sat inside the cart, and curses. He swore a great deal, the highway and the mule getting most of a copious repertoire which, on this occasion, consisted of lewd epithets and strings of imprecations involving the honour of ancestors more or less remote, effectively combined with sex and all pertaining to it.

"Hm!—Is this called a road?"

"Truly," responded the old man who, while acquiescing, was not in the least put out. Roads were certainly better in the dry season, but how could they be otherwise after a rainfall, and a heavy one at that? He knew full well, and

so did the grumbling carter, that a "great" road, even an imperial highway, in China, was just a track, at times raised a little above the level of the surrounding country and differing from other tracks only in the depth and the number of ruts which furrowed its surface; and sometimes also distinguished by trees which shaded it for a short distance outside the larger cities. The Great Sea Road was no exception; it was raised, and from a gate in the rampart which encircles the environs of the old city of Tientsin willows gave it their sylvan company for a little way, then left it to follow a tortuous course alone through low lying flat lands for thirty weary miles to the Gulf of Pechili.

"How far have we come?" asked the old man.

"Thirty li of land," replied the carter.

"Only thirty li! And the sun so high? I thought it was more, for we left Taku at dawn."

"That we left early it is not false, but the road is not easy to travel. Had it been dry we should have gone twenty li more."

"Truth is here," agreed the old man, adding, "Stop a little way further on and we'll buy a slice of melon to quench our thirst."

Shortly afterwards, on the outskirts of a village, a loud and prolonged "Yu-u-u" brought the cart to a standstill. "Yu" is music to the ear of a tired animal. It surely was this day to the pony and the mule, who stopped instantly at the word of command and were not slow in noticing a

bucket by a well at the side of the road, to which they turned their heads expectantly.

But no water was given to them. The travellers were interested elsewhere—in an individual who stood by two wicker baskets containing melons, under an awning stretched on a wooden cross on the top of a slanting bamboo pole. On one of the baskets was a tray on which were half of a melon and a number of equally cut slices, whose desirability was being loudly proclaimed.

"Water melons! Water melons! Melons with sand grained pulp! Six cash a slice! Melons as sweet as honey in boat-like slices," cried the vendor, clad only in a pair of blue cotton pantaloons held in position by a sash of a darker colour, his queue coiled round his head, and in his right hand a palm leaf fan which he waved incessantly to keep off hosts of buzzing bluebottles with only partial success. Many of these were so firmly settled on the succulent slices that they deigned not to budge even at the threat of extermination.

"How much for a whole one?" asked the old man, getting out of the cart.

"I have been selling at one hundred and eighty cash. I'll reckon one hundred and fifty with you."

"What words!" exclaimed the old man indignantly. "Why, in Tientsin one eats Grand Canal melons at not more than one hundred cash."

"I do not ask too much. Who would ask so much above the true price, consider you, old teacher," coaxed the seller in tones befitting a plausible manner, which were entirely wasted on the old man.

"I'll give you one hundred and ten," said the old man with a sudden movement to get into the cart, at the back of which the carter was adjusting some packages.

"That would not even meet the cost. Say another word."

As the gesture towards the cart had not had the desired effect, though there was a slight weakening in the tone of

the vendor, the old man shouted irritably, "One hundred and twenty! Not one cash more will I spend. If you don't sell we shall eat further on. Melons are plentiful."

"One hundred and forty!"

"Don't want," yelled the old man and, addressing the carter, continued loudly, "Drive on. We'll buy melons further on," whereupon he proceeded to get into the cart. "You spend one hundred and thirty, old teacher," was the melon man's next coaxing effort.

"Don't want!" repeated the old teacher in stentorian tones.

"Let it be so, then, I'll sell one for one hundred and twenty," said the other in accents which ill disguised his feelings.

"I'll take one, but it must be ripe. Don't like the one there that's already cut up," pointing to the tray. "Not ripe."

"We'll select another," and the seller tested several by knocking at them with his knuckles. Presently he picked up one which he held close to his ear and patted approvingly.

"Listen."

"Ponk, ponk," came from the melon, as he rapped. It was a sound of hollowness, indicating that the inside, comparatively solid in the early stages of growth, had undergone the desired transformation. This was fully borne out when the melon, on being cut up, revealed a pulp made up of tiny sand-like crystals luscious and full of juice.

"Good melon!" was the instant and understanding tribute of a yokel smoking nearby, who took his pipe out of his mouth in the excitement of the moment.

"Good melon!" exclaimed several others, interested spectators of the bargaining. "Good melon!" agreed the carter after his first mouthful; and then he and the old man filled the air with noises only made by the ill-mannered when taking down hot soup.

SOME DELHI PAINTERS

by A. S. Raman (Delhi)

DELHI is gradually emerging as an important centre of the arts. Concerts, ballet, theatre and exhibitions find an enthusiastic audience here. Many of Delhi's artists are still at art-school stage, despite their sales at exhibitions. There are, however, also some mature artists, amongst whom Sailol Mookherjee is the best known. During his tour of Europe in the 30's, he visited the Louvre, met Matisse, and at once became a convert to the French palette without losing sight of the rich heritage of his own country. In all his enduring works, one can notice a happy fusion of the West and the East, of the restraint of the one and the romanticism of the other. He is among the country's few mature painters today. He cannot, therefore, be of Delhi alone; the rest of India has equal claims on him.

Another outstanding painter is Biren De. He is very young but determined and his art has the vitality as well as the curiosity of youth. His affinities are unashamedly with the abstractionists, but his visions are his own. The ex-

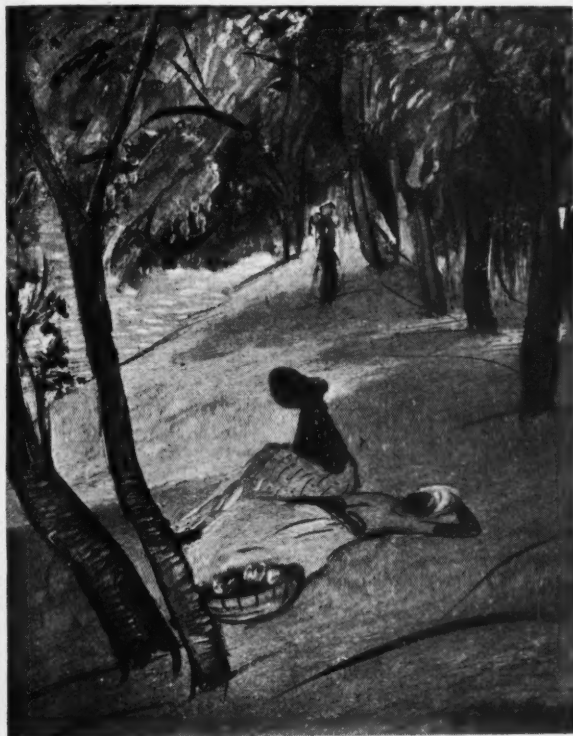


A Jodhpur Landscape by Satyen Ghosal

quisite fantasies spun by him on the walls of the Delhi University Convocation Hall have a refreshingly Indian flavour, and yet their visual language essentially belongs to our time. He has also a flair for portraiture. One of his portraits was awarded a prize by the All-India Fine Arts and Crafts Society (AIFACS).

Badri, Biswanath Mukherjee and Abani Sen are also members of the AIFACS. The first two are brilliant ex-

ponents of the eclectic "Bengal School," which came into being at the turn of the century under the inspiration of Dr. Abanindranath Tagore and the late E. B. Havell. The works of Badri and Biswanath Mukherjee are remarkable for their mastery of technique. Badri's compositions in particular, are animated by their inner repose and rhythm. His sureness of line and sense of pattern must be the very despair of his fumbling fellow-adherents of the school. Ananda Coomaraswamy has likened the latter to the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood not only in its delicacy and charm, but in its lack of vigour and vitality. Abani Sen should be judged not by his crude animal studies which lack convic-



Siesta by Sailol Mookherjee

tion, but by his interesting experiments in folk art mannerisms in which one can notice a healthy return to solid primitive forms.

The other members of the AIFACS deserve notice. Satyen Ghosal and Dr. B. P. Pal are landscape artists of considerable merit. Ghosal's occasional adventures into surrealist landscape are very interesting. Dr. Pal, a Sunday painter, is most evocative in his water-colours, while his oils look rather laboured.

B. N. Jijja, unattached, is another gifted adherent of the Bengal School. There cannot be two opinions about the qualities of his impeccable *belles* in wash which are irresistible. But the lyrical landscape of the English school is his strength.

It would be invidious to single out any one artist of the Delhi Silpi Chakra for special mention. Nearly all its members seem to have something to say, and they seek to



The Murals at Delhi University. Detail of a panel by Biren De

say it in a manner consistent with contemporary taste. The one thing they have all in common is seriousness of purpose, though sometimes they find themselves involved in inconsequential controversies.

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SHINTO MARRIAGES

by Iris Machin



The marriage ceremony ends with the mother giving her son and newly-acquired daughter-in-law a final cup of sake, with her blessing

WITH our divorce courts filled to overflowing, it is interesting to note that Shinto marriages in Japan are a great success, and that divorce in the old families is almost unknown. Marriages are, in fact, so carefully planned that the risk entailed, and the odds against unhappiness, are reduced to a minimum.

Of recent years a great deal has changed for the better in Japan, but the marriage pledge *San-san-ku-do* ("three times three equals nine") has withstood a rigid testing for thousands of years, and even in these days of Americanisation fifty per cent of Japanese marriages adhere to the old custom.

There is no romantic "love at first sight," no tender preliminary courtship—a marriage is an alliance between two families in which all the relatives, uncles and parents have had their say, and openly express their opinions as to the suitability of a match.

At an early stage an important elderly married man is called in to act as a go-between, whose duties are to delve into the social and financial status of both families concerned. And if the couple are ultimately wed, this man is their adviser throughout life, settling all family troubles, and acting as Cupid's umpire in domestic bickerings.

The go-between soon arranges for a *niyai* (meeting) so that the young couple may see each other in some public place under the close chaperonage of both families. If no objections arise as a result of this meeting, he goes ahead with the arrangements for the wedding. The actual date, however, is not fixed without the aid of a fortune teller. In the meantime *uino* (orthodox presents) of wine, fish and silk are exchanged between the two families.

Shortly before the marriage the bride's family sends the dowry to the husband's house. The bride is expected to provide enough kimonos and sashes to last a lifetime, and also bedding, cupboards for her husband's clothes, mats and screens, but chairs and tables are not used.

Before the ceremony the bride gives herself a *taka-shimada* coiffure, with a white hair band to cover the "horns of jealousy" that all women are superstitiously believed to possess. She dons red and white under-clothing over which there is a kimono of pure black crepe embroidered five times with the family crest. The old custom of shaving the eyebrows and blacking out the teeth is no longer kept up. Before an Occupation Order forbidding the carrying of arms, the bride used to carry a dagger with which to "protect her honour." In modern times bridegrooms often adopt a European style of dress, though grotesqueness is sometimes achieved by a blending of eastern and western fashions.

In the evening the groom sends attendants to fetch the bride, who in more spacious times came forth in a palanquin surrounded by lantern bearers—a taxi or rickshaw sufficing today.

The room where the marriage takes place is decorated with lucky emblems—storks for fertility, bamboos for plenty, and tortoises for wisdom. The groom takes his seat above his bride; the go-between, some married ladies and a few young girl attendants on the bride are the only people present. The relatives sit in an adjoining room, and are only informed when the ceremony is over. On a white table there are three cups, diminishing in size, one upon the other. Sake, poured from a container decorated with

butterflies, is offered to the bride in each of the three cups from which she takes three sips before passing it on to her husband, who does likewise. The bride and bridegroom then pledge each other to share joy and sorrow together. This is followed by a big feast, after which the newly wedded pair retire to their room under the guidance of the go-between's wife.

Life for the husband remains much the same, as he

continues to live in his father's house. But for the young wife things are much more arduous. She has no time, however, to regret her marriage or to seek diversion elsewhere, for she has to wait on her elder sister-in-law and attend assiduously to her husband and father-in-law. It is a disgrace for the young wife to be divorced by her husband because he would only take this drastic step if she had been rude to her mother-in-law!

TRAVELS IN SIKKIM

by David Parry

EVEN more mountainous than the neighbouring states of Bhutan, Nepal and Tibet, Sikkim has much to offer the traveller with a liking for out-of-the-way places, and the beauty of its scenery is probably unsurpassed anywhere in the world. The villages are, on an average, situated at between five and ten thousand feet above sea-level, but in the south the altitude in the malarious river valleys frequently drops to one or two thousand, and in the west the land rises steeply to meet the colossal *massif* of Kanchenjunga, other great peaks in the range being Kambachen, Jano, Pandim and Kabru. Indeed, bearing in mind that Sikkim is under 2,800 square miles in extent, less than half the size of Wales, it will be clear that there can be little or no flat ground among the confusing array of tree-covered slopes and rocky spurs, and the vegetation differs enormously according to the elevation, so that it is not unusual to see both Alpine and tropical flowers in a day's march. The forests are just as moist and luxuriant as those in India and Malaya, the heights bleak, wind-swept, often wrapped in chilling mist, and work must go on almost continuously if the narrow bridle paths are to be kept open, while crude bamboo bridges are slung across the streams too deep to ford. Over these rough, winding tracks the business of the country is carried on today in much the same manner as it has been for centuries, and there are, of course, no motor roads with the exception of the one linking Bengal and Gangtok.

Apart from this main highway running direct to the capital, there are several alternative routes by which Sikkim can be entered on foot from the hill-station of Darjeeling, and perhaps best of all is the one that follows the Bengal-Nepal border through Tonglu and Phalut. One soon finds the inhabitants to be friendly and hospitable, and the majority are related to Bhutia, Tibetan and Nepalese immigrants, the native Lepchas accounting for only about a tenth of the total population of some 120,000. Indeed, but for the improved conditions of the last one hundred years or so, this tribe might now be very nearly extinct, and its people have been a more or less subject race since the end of the sixteenth century, when the large-scale movement of Tibetan colonists first began.

The typical Sikkim homestead is built on a raised foundation of stones or packed mud, and, as is frequently the custom in the East, the few rooms are not reserved each for a special purpose, the bedding merely being brought out and unrolled when the last meal is over and the family wishes to sleep. The thatched room is supported on a framework of bamboo, and this material is used extensively for walls and flooring, though the uprights are generally hewn from stout tree-trunks dragged laboriously to the chosen site. A hamlet may consist of no more than three or four such houses, but the larger villages have, in addition, a number of shops where the porters, muleteers and other wayfarers can obtain food and shelter for the night. The favourite refreshment is *marwa*, a

remarkably cheap drink made with fermented millet, and the same bamboo *chunga* can be replenished again and again with hot water before the grain finally loses its potency and is thrown away. Mass-produced clothing, too, may be purchased in the bazaars, and consequently there is much less demand for the traditional hand-woven garments made by the women in their own homes. Another sign of the times is the widespread popularity of bright green Homburg hats, and this type of headgear looks a trifle strange to Western eyes when worn along with a full-sleeved robe and felt boots. In certain matters, on the contrary, the people are conservative to a degree, and it is impossible to journey far in Sikkim without becoming conscious of the tremendous importance of religion in their everyday affairs.

Probably most numerous of the religious shrines erected by the Sikkimese are the graceful, moss-covered *chorten*, and especially famous is the so-called *Thong-wa-rang-tö* ("Saviour by mere sight") at Tashiding. Set up by well-to-do persons as a means of acquiring merit, these pagoda-like buildings must always be kept on the traveller's right, and the same procedure has to be adopted when passing the low *mendong*, or *mani* walls, to be noted at intervals along the mountain paths. To make this ritual possible, the *mendong* is invariably laid down the middle of the track, and poor folk can arrange to add as little as one slab of stone to an existing structure, though a wealthy landowner would doubtless pay for an entire wall. The size varies a good deal, an outstanding example at Keusing stretching for about two hundred yards, and in this case *chorten* are placed at either end. Exceptionally common are the cylindrical prayer wheels containing rolls of paper inscribed with the incantation *Om mani padme houn!* and some of these devices, turning on massive iron pivots, must surely exceed a ton in weight, whereas others are light enough to be held in the hand and manipulated with a slight movement of the wrist. Normally all these prayer wheels are manually operated, each complete revolution being signalled by the stroke of a gong, but so much ingenuity has been expended on the problem that at least two are now propelled by water, a simple mechanism taking the drive to the cylinder itself.

Nevertheless, while eager to ensure that there shall be constant repetition of the sacred formula, the priests of Sikkim have by no means confined themselves to this question alone, and the devout layman must be acutely aware of the strict rules to be observed in practically every phase of his daily life. Elaborate ceremonies are performed, horoscopes cast, devils exorcised, and a measure of the lamas' influence are the countless prayer flags—strips of white cloth sprinkled with holy water and stamped with a special die—that are displayed to keep away evil spirits—often, in the opinion of the peasants, the ghosts of relatives who have recently died. In fact, an ordinary villager would be hard put to name a single human

activity that does not fall within the jurisdiction of the clergy, and it is no surprise to learn, therefore, that the *gompa* is the most imposing building in the district, the richest one in Sikkim being Pemionchi. Here the full complement of monks, all dressed in the distinctive maroon serge, is over a hundred, but equally celebrated are the monasteries of Dubdi and Sanga Chelling, and each, whatever its status, usually has two storeys, the main place of worship occupying the ground floor. During the day the altar is illuminated by the sunlight streaming through the open door, and in this chamber are conducted the lamaist services of invocation to the deities, services in which there is much sonorous chanting and much playing of flutes, conch shells, horns and drums.

Reached by an outside staircase, the greater part of the upper storey of the monastery is given over to the library, and here may be kept, too, the grotesque masks worn by the lamas in their plays and dances, while the walls and pillars are frequently hung with gorgeous tapestries depicting religious scenes. The books are arranged in pigeon-holes or on long trays, the pages being fastened between stout boards, and the standard collection takes up an enormous amount of space, comprising well over three hundred volumes. With the exception of the custodian, who has a dwelling in the grounds, it is quite common for the monks to have to walk to the *gompa* from the surrounding villages, and there are, incidentally, a confusing number of grades of lama, ranging from the temporal and spiritual heads of the institution, men with very considerable power over their subordinates, to the callow novice in his early teens. Even after he has risen a stage further in the hierarchy, a young lama has to complete many years of study before he is allowed to deputise for his superiors at marriages, burials, and so on, and the majority of recruits are drawn from the families of the priesthood, though the children of laymen may join if they wish. In some Sikkim monasteries the routine duties are shared by a small party of nuns, but a woman's chances of advancement in the profession do not appear to be high.

Just as the *poongyi khyang* is the educational centre in the outlying districts of Burma, so the *gompa* is the seat of learning in the remote areas of Sikkim, and it is only by enrolling as a monk that a boy interested in painting or sculp-

ture is able to obtain instruction in these crafts. After serving his apprenticeship he may eventually assume responsibility for extending the monastery's frescoes or carvings, and in due course it is likely that he will be asked to teach classes of his own. This side of the problem is ignored by authors who are at pains to stress the uselessness of the clergy in this part of Asia, but for the lamas it is questionable whether any form of art would flourish among the races inhabiting the southern slopes of the Himalayas, for the local handicraft industries are capable of producing nothing of more consequence than cooking utensils and reed mats. The explanation, plainly, is that the economic situation restricts expenditure to the bare essentials, and the farmer has to resort to back-breaking methods in order to raise sufficient food—though, judging by the steady influx of settlers from that quarter, conditions are appreciably better in Sikkim than in nearby Nepal.

Virtually every able-bodied person in Sikkim helps in the cultivation of rice, the staple diet of Lepchas, Nepalese and Tibetans alike, and this is grown in two ways—on permanent, artificially-levelled terraces cut in the hillsides, and on temporary strips cleared in the jungle shortly before planting is scheduled to begin. These wet and dry rice crops are intended primarily for home consumption, as are millet, barley, wheat and maize, but a proportion of the cardamom yield will be transported to the market and sold for cash. Universal tools are the knife, the sickle, and an ancient type of plough, and not until October does the average smallholder have an opportunity to rest from his labours, for at other times of the year sowing and harvesting are complicated by the broken nature of the countryside and the heavy monsoon rains. Domestic animals include oxen, goats and pigs, and the number of head of cattle is taken into account when assessing an individual's tax liability, the money being gathered by the village headman and sent by him to Gangtok. Prior to receiving these payments the Maharajah, accompanied by a group of ministers, embarks on a grand tour of Sikkim, his retainers going on ahead to pitch the tents and make ready for the evening meal, and the arrival of the procession is keenly awaited by the peasants, coinciding with the gay thanksgiving festivals and the storing up of produce against the cold winter months.

THE BATTLE OF CHING-SHAN-LI (II)

by Lee Bum Suk

(Translated from the Korean by Kim Dong Song)

REPORTS came in that about 120 of the enemy's cavalry had reached the nearby village of Chuan-sui-ping at dusk on the day before and had remained there. We decided to attack the Japanese at this village early the next morning. To do so, we had to complete preparations before 4 a.m. and the boys had to get up after less than an hour's sleep.

Our entire army moved out, the second detachment leading the way. At the entrance to the village of Chuan-sui-ping was a lonely farmhouse. There we heard that the enemy was staying in the three collective farmhouses in the village. Thinking that we were still 50 miles away, the Japanese had posted only a few mounted sentries around their camp.

We decided to organise attacking units. Our men were divided into four companies, one of which would occupy the mountain slope to the north of the village, another the heights of southern Chung-sui-ping and the remaining two the creek at the north of the town. I was with the latter two companies, which were to proceed east in the creek bed and attack when our vanguard reached eastern Chuan-sui-ping.

Severe cold froze everything. Silvery frost covered all. The air pricked our flesh like thorns. At about 5 o'clock dawn came,

and the first two companies reached their destinations. As I forded the creek, water came up to my waist. When we reached the eastern section, we pulled our drooping bodies out of the water to climb up the bank. We found ourselves covered with ice, for the cold wind froze our wet garments instantly.

We were discovered by a mounted sentry who fired at us without inquiry. We replied with our bullets. Then we tried to volley all our available firearms at a brewery where the horses were stabled.

I led my men to the nearest farmhouse. The spectacles over my near-sighted eyes became clouded with steam when I got inside. I could not tell men from objects. I fired left and right as the startled enemy tried to escape through the gate.

Those of my men who were not able to get into the building checked the escape of the Japanese outside by shooting, cutting and beating. While the hand-to-hand fighting was going on, I rushed from the building and fired with my Russian pistol at two mounted soldiers escaping from the other side. I emptied seven shots in vain because my frozen fingers could not take proper aim.

The two soldiers were flying towards me on their horses. I had no time to load the revolver. The horses were about to leap

over me, their riders waving their long swords. I quickly jumped into a hog pen and lay flat.

The soldiers with their swords cut off three posts of the hog pen as though they were pieces of bread. One of the mounted soldiers fell to the ground, and the other continued his gallop, jumping over the bodies of his fallen comrades.

Scores of shots followed him, much faster than his horse's gallop. At last he too fell within a distance of not more than 400 metres. The riderless beast continued its flight through the stream of blood. Then it became the target of a stray bullet and tumbled over in its tracks. I reloaded my pistol and shot down other riders, who rolled down the backs of their runaway horses.

I started to mount an Arabian horse but jumped off quickly as my soldiers, mistaking me for an enemy, volleyed shots into the horse's belly.

Our machine guns and mortars poured shells into the stables. Losing their means of transportation, the Japanese fled on foot in all directions. But the Imperial Army had no way of escape.

Shimada, commander of the enemy company, rolled off his saddle because his horse's front legs were broken as he tried to retreat. With lightning speed, another cavalrman stopped near the commander to offer his horse. Shimada jumped on it, burying his face in the horse's mane and kicking the beast with his boots. After riding a short distance in this position, he was hit by a bullet and fell.

The battle ended. Everywhere were dead men and beasts. Khaki-clad bodies of the Imperial Army were scattered all over the village. Chuan-sui-ping was transformed into a desolate waste. Water flasks, bullet cases, broken gunbarrels, saddles, knapsacks and blankets blocked the main road. The bright morning sun shone on the bloody corpses.

At this battle, the enemy's cavalry company of 120 soldiers commanded by Shimada was annihilated except for those who fled from the battlefield. Our casualties totalled two dead and 17 wounded. We took some cavalry guns, two horses, combat swords, telescopes and telephones as our trophies. And many of our boys had some stylish overcoats of the Imperial Army to wear. I received a slight wound on my thigh, but for that I was repaid a dozen times by finding Shimada's telescope. We confiscated the enemy's dried food and canned goods, and started to fill our empty stomachs.

We found an invaluable article in Shimada's bag. It was an official report to the Japanese Regimental Commander, Kano, which Shimada evidently had written a very short time before.

From it we learned that the Japanese 90th Division was making its headquarters at Yu-lang-tsun, a short distance away, while Shimada's company came to Chuan-sui-ping. After reading the report, we forgot our still unquenched thirst and hunger and, putting the remaining food into bags, ran for Ma-lo-kou, the mountain slope on the north.

Victory in combat often depends upon outstripping the enemy in occupying the most advantageous position on the battlefield. Knowing this, we occupied the heights as soon as possible. We had Shimada's report to thank for saving us from being surrounded and destroyed by the enemy.

MA-LO-KOU

The entire strength of the enemy division opened fire on us. Having mobilised all available cannon, the Japanese continued their advance, shielding their main force. They moved towards Ma-lo-kou like an immense wave.

Our troops numbered 2,000 to the enemy's 20,000. But we occupied the advantageous position on the hills, and those who are in the higher places are the braver.

General Kim's hat was knocked off by one of the bullets which were striking all around us. My combat sword was broken into two pieces by a flying fragment, and my nose and mouth were red with blood. All our horses fell. One wounded comrade fought as long as he could, but finally fell after being shot 19 times.

As they could not attack the hills with their frontal attack, the Japanese sent a large cavalry force around our side wing to cut off our retreat. We had to dispel their advance with our side wing. We climbed from peak to peak on Ma-lo-kou as we continued our resistance. The enemy's cavalry was detouring far around to the side. The battle had begun in the morning, and it was now afternoon.

Women from the village came up through the shower of bullets, rice cakes in their skirts, to feed the fighting men with their own hands like mothers feeding their children.

At one point in the fighting I was left a little distance from my men. There were still 20 metres to walk before I caught up with them. A dozen Japanese rushed towards me crying, "Take that fellow!" My men were in sight, and I tried my best to run. But my heavy legs, now a pair of wooden legs, would not listen to my wishes. My spirit was beaten by my flesh. I gave up everything to fate, and lay down flat on the ground. I was determined to make a last gamble with my blood—to win for death more than one enemy life with my single life.

The enemy would spring on me at any moment. Behind the summit my men kept firing at the enemy and shouting. Suddenly one of my officers ran down the cliff like a wounded boar, lifted me up and carried me away as though I were a piece of baggage.

Under our fire, the enemy retreated, leaving two dead behind. Night arrived. A big moon rose up leisurely through the clouds. The moonlight covered the earth, penetrating through the screen of fire and smoke caused by the fighting.

General Kim, who had spent several nights without sleep, snored at my side. The moonlight reflected on the pale faces of the sleeping men. It seemed almost heartless to awaken them.

But the enemy had begun to advance again, although the attack was lighter than before.

When General Kim awoke, we decided to withdraw in order to conserve our strength. With two companies left as rearguards to shield our main force, we withdrew. Our rearguards were caught in a furious battle. The gun barrels became so hot they almost scorched the men's fingers, yet none hesitated.

Forty of our men who were holding a small path on the summit, fell together.

While our main force was withdrawing, a small unit lost its leader. The comparatively untrained comrades of this unit were like a shepherdless flock on the lonely summit, falling into the enemy area, isolated. A messenger must be dispatched to lead them back to the rest of the army. But who would be the messenger? On this kind of a mission, the chances of meeting death were 99 out of a 100.

Stout, bearded Kim Yul stood up. "I will go!" he cried, and instantly jumped down the slope. One heavy machine gun shielded him. The enemy's bullets poured upon this heroic messenger. Countless shots passed by him. He rolled down the slope, on and on until he was out of range. Then he got up and ran to another summit.

Again a volley of shots was heard. He rolled again, raised himself when the firing ceased, and crawled on all fours. His whole body was covered with cuts and wounds and smeared with blood. But at last he succeeded in his mission and saved most of the unit.

When the moonlight disappeared in the west three hours before dawn, we succeeded in withdrawing from the combat under the shield of darkness. While we were retreating, we saw flames rising from Chuan-sui-ping, where the Japanese were burning the property of our compatriots and the people themselves.

So ended the battle of Ching-shan-li—two full days of fierce and desperate fighting.

At the outset, the enemy forces had included two divisions of about 20,000 men each and were aided by 50,000 policemen along the way. Our men numbered 2,800, including non-combatants.

The enemy's casualties totalled 3,300. On our side, 60 were killed and 90 were wounded.

Several circumstances contributed to our unusual victory. Our army was fighting for freedom and the revenge of wrongs inflicted on its homeland, and therefore battled more vigorously than the Japanese. A large portion of our men were well trained. Local compatriots loyally co-operated with us. Although our clothing was thin and inadequate for the cold weather, it allowed us to move quickly. The Japanese, on the other hand, were too heavily clad for mountain combat.

The Imperial Army was disgraced in combat at Ching-shan-li but triumphed when it attacked unarmed Koreans. After the battle, the enemy slaughtered more than 30,000 unarmed Koreans in Manchuria.

The Ching-shan-li area is no different today than it was before the battle. But for the Korean people it stands as a lonely monument to the Korean love of freedom and justice.

UNCHANGING BALI

by Marc T. Greene

FAR-FAMED Bali, tourist "must" and high objective of every world-traveller for twenty years before the war, has suffered less change during the past decade than any other part of the East. It is still the essence and epitome of the exotic, still the last fairyland, still out of and apart from the modern world.

Bali was settled hundreds of years ago by leading Hindu families of Java who could not reconcile themselves to the Mohammedan conquest of the East Indies, and it remains today the sole oasis of Hinduism in all the Muslim empire of the former Dutch Asiatic possessions.

These Hindu refugees were people of a broad culture, having their own highly-developed arts, the arts of music, painting, carving, sculpture and dancing. Most of it was, as it remains today, associated with a fervent religious faith, Hindu in its general conception but free of its more zealous and fanatic features, more tolerant and much less rigid in the caste-system as well as excluding untouchability.

It is the retention and the progressive expansion of this artistic culture that, in the main, has given Bali the exotic charm, the glowing colour and the fascination for Europeans on which its fame is based. But behind all that, supplementing the more superficial features of their culture, the Balinese people have a deeply-ingrained and a jealously-cherished individuality of custom and viewpoint that seems to defy the turn and change of fortune in the world about them.

It also defied the influences of the war and the three years of Japanese occupation. Whereas near by in Java the effects of the war are lamentably apparent, in Bali no one would ever know there had been a war. True, the Japanese occupants interfered very little with the Balinese. They even encouraged the continuance of the dancing, the *gamelan* orchestra playing, the elaborate and detailed observances of Balinese Hinduism and all the other particular and peculiar manifestations of the island's culture.

The Balinese took the war and the occupation as it were in their stride. They are an easy-going people, averse to violence of any kind, unnecessary exertion, strife. After their work in the rice-fields which provide most of their sustenance they squat for hours in groups by the roadside or in the shadow of the temple walls, chewing the betel-nut and discussing as the theme of most interest the respective merits of their fighting roosters. These they carry about in wicker cages, ever ready to accept a challenge, since cock-fighting is the Balinese national sport. A Balinese will squat for an hour or two, his rooster in his lap, stroking it, talking to it, encouraging it for the next bout, the proud bird emitting an occasional raucous crow.

Along the heavily-shaded road, in a land where both animate and inanimate fecundity is unrestrained and lush, walk long processions of women bearing on their heads offerings to the numberless temples, generally food of which the priests make good use after it has remained on the altar



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for a sufficient length of time to meet such requirements as the gods themselves may feel.

If you are visiting Bali for the first time since the war you are delighted to find that there remains, out of it all, one such place, indeed the last best hope of earth in the truly exotic. The superb natural beauty of the island, which has a population of a million and a half, provides the background and a setting for the centuries-old culture of a people who are unlike any others in the world. Bali is all hills and valleys and bright green rice-paddies, and its profusion of rain during the wet season, which is from November to April with occasional showers the rest of the year, maintains an emerald brilliance on mountains and valleys. Everywhere is colour, emerald, sapphire, gold, amethystine, and the garb of the Balinese women reflects all these hues.

Life, even for the visitor, is cheap. The dances and various forms of entertainment are given as much for the pleasure of the participants or as religious ceremonies as for your delectation, and if you contribute a few guilders it is gratefully accepted. In fact, the Balinese people are the soul of courtesy, politeness and hospitality. Even the tourism of before the war had little effect upon these fundamentals of their age-old culture, and the Japanese occupation might never have occurred for all the influence it has had upon Balinese life.

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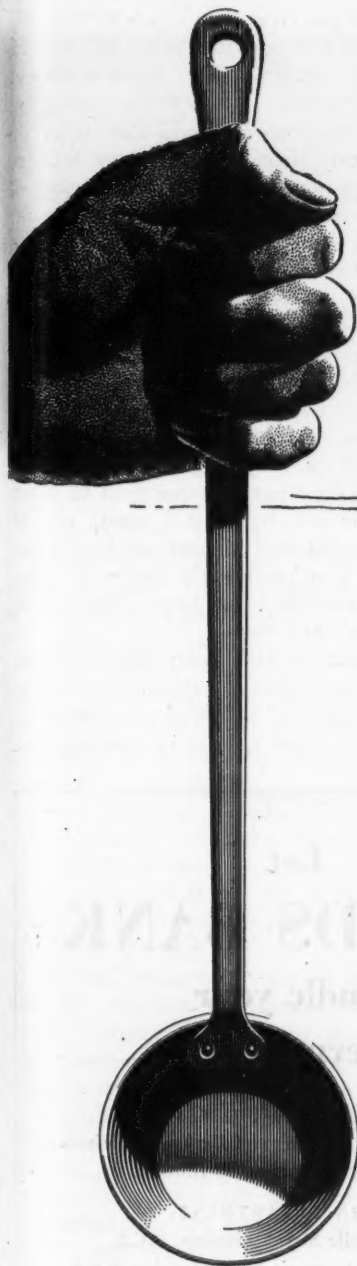
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ECONOMIC SECTION

OIL IN PAKISTAN

by Howard Fox

THE most notable recent developments in the oil industry on the Indian sub-continent have occurred in the Dominion of Pakistan. Of these, the most important has centred in Sind, where considerable interest was aroused by the abandonment of the Lakhra test well at a depth of 12,666 feet. At this depth water was encountered at a temperature near boiling point and under high pressure. What change of rock formation accounted for this development is unknown. The firm concerned—the Burmah Oil Company (Pakistan Concessions) Ltd.—has estimated that the total cost of the drilling (including prospecting expenses) was in the neighbourhood of £1 million.

Officials of the company are now considering future policy in the light of the Lakhra experience. The borehole has been described as the deepest in the sub-continent and one of the deepest ever drilled in Asia. As a point of interest, the world's deepest is the Wyoming well of 20,521 feet—also a dry hole, and wells in Trinidad and Canada have been drilled to depths exceeding that at Lakhra. Great energies had been expended in this barren venture. At a depth of 11,162 feet, very hard quartzitic sandstones were met which were very abrasive and slowed down the drilling. Progress went down to about five feet a day and less, and bits sometimes wore out after three or four feet. Inquiries were instituted for special bits with cutting teeth made of industrial diamonds.

There was the possibility that this sandstone represented basement rocks which, if reached, would have meant the end of the well. However, it has recently been possible to undertake a partial study of the regions to the west, where all these rocks and even much older ones are exposed at the surface. This has indicated that the well is still in sedimentary rocks. The company had intended to carry on drilling to a maximum depth and a final depth of about 16,000 feet had been thought possible. It was realised that this would not merely test the oil possibilities of the Lakhra area in particular but also give a good indication of the prospects of a whole group of geologically related structures in Siam.

Four high pressure gas areas were struck in the early drilling stages, though it was impossible to tell whether the actual gas volumes were significant. No manifestations of gas or signs of any oil were subsequently encountered.

The new strike of oil experienced near Rawalpindi by the Burmah Oil Company (reported in EASTERN WORLD, November 1949) took place near the southern boundary of an area worked by the Attock Oil Company. As a result, a temporary agreement was made between the two parties for the transport of oil from the new well to the Rawalpindi refinery owned by the Attock Oil Company; tentative agreements were also made for its refining.

The wells at Balkassar belonging to the Attock Oil Company would be large producers for a short period were they to be left under open flow conditions. The company's geological advisers have, however, warned that it would be unwise to be carried away by current results. Their recommendations are to the effect that care must be taken not to over-produce the field but that a steady rate of production should be maintained without the loss of too much pressure. This is a particularly important point because the reserve of pressure is not large. Nor are the potentialities of the field yet known.

The Attock Oil Company also report that drilling at their well at Meyal has gone ahead, a troublesome caving formation having been shut off by casing and cement at 7,600 feet. During the third quarter of last year the

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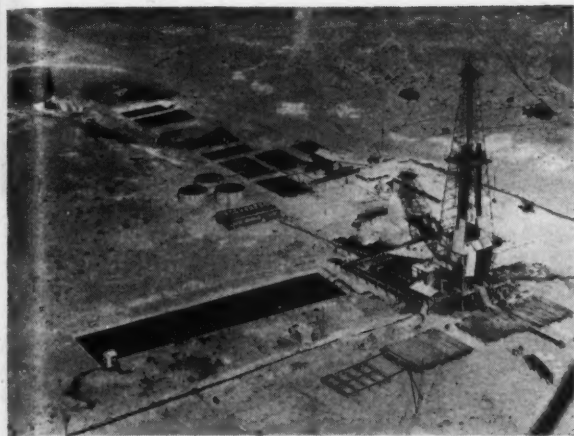
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Lahra Well No. 1, West Pakistan

company's production stood at 179,299 barrels. It went to 203,561 barrels in the next period, but for the first quarter of this year it declined to 152,710.

World production of crude oil last year was three million tons below the 1948 level. In Pakistan the production of various petroleum products which stood at 70,000 tons in 1948, rose in 1949 to 100,000 tons. This year it is expected to increase still further.

While production figures are rising, so are demands, especially for furnace oil which will account for 50 per cent of the Dominion's total oil needs this year. While the latter are expected to amount to 900,000 tons, those for furnace oil are estimated at 450,000 tons. This increase is due largely to the conversion of Pakistan's locomotives from coal to oil-burning.

In this connection it should be noted that for some time the Pakistan Government have been encouraging private industry to turn to oil as a fuel in preference to coal. Industry has also started a conversion programme, although its progress has not been so spectacular as that achieved by the railways, mainly because the very heavy freight which used to be charged on furnace oil by the railways. The surcharge of 37.5 per cent levied on such oil was some time ago removed and the Ministry of Communications has since accepted the view that every possible help should be given to industry to substitute oil for coal. Railways will, therefore, henceforward carry furnace oil on a freight structure such as will make it effectively serve as a basic industrial fuel.

The increased demand for petroleum products in Pakistan has called for an increase in the capacity of tankage at ports and up-country centres. A large number of tank wagons is to be placed at the disposal of industry in both wings of Pakistan to enable the free movement of oil throughout the country.

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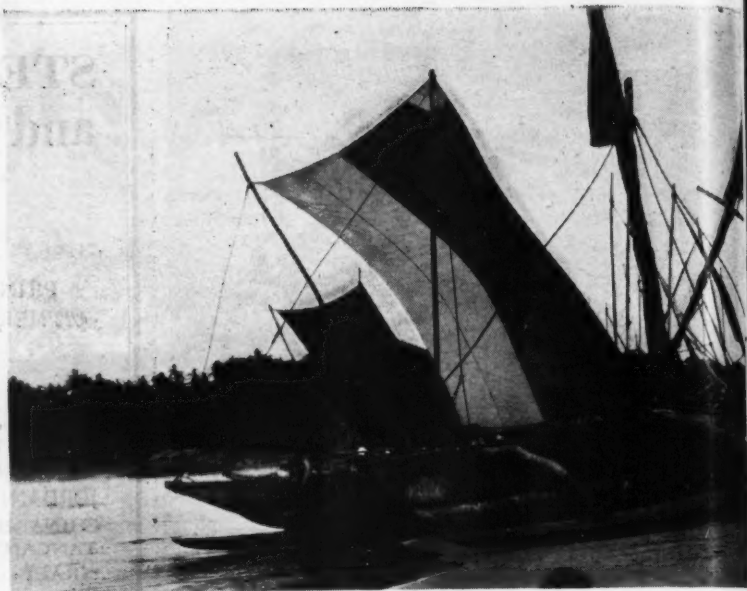
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*Fishing Boats on the foreshore near
Colombo*



EVERY year Ceylon spends overseas 500 million rupees in order to buy food. A large portion of this amount could be utilised in procuring capital goods that would help to increase the country's national wealth, as the Government now realises. Accordingly, a six-year plan was laid down in 1947, and as a result new lands are now being opened up by the Ministry of Agriculture and Lands with such speed that it is expected the target of 131,137 acres will be exceeded before the final year. In his Budget speech, the Finance Minister said: "I think it will be agreed that the first step in our plans must be to produce our own food. To be self-supporting in essential foods and in the articles necessary for clothing and housing is one of the main tasks we have to devote our attention to."

The Nutritional Survey which was appointed by the Government have now issued their report, in which they state: "In the tropics 2,500 calories are required per adult consumption unit per day. The energy value of the non-rice portion of the diet is roughly 800 calories per day per adult consumption unit, so that 1,700 calories per day should be supplied by rice—that is, each adult consumption unit should eat 18 ounces of rice per day."

Dr. Ananda Nimalasuriya, the Government expert on dietetics, says: "The quantity of rice necessary for normal health is ten ounces per day for an adult man. This will suffice only if the man also gets four ounces of other cereals, two ounces of pulses, two ounces of leafy vegetables, four ounces of meat or fish, two ounces of fruits, ten ounces of milk, two ounces of vegetable oil and one ounce of sugar per day."

At the last census (1946) the population of Ceylon was 6,657,339 and the amount of rice necessary to feed this population at ten ounces per head is 19,011,796 bushels or 551,673 tons. At the rate of 18 ounces per head the rice necessary to feed the Island's population is 993,011 tons.

Ceylon produces only 170,000 tons of rice a year, and in 1948 she imported 409,400 tons, paying the large sum of 236,115,461 rupees for it, the chief sources of supply being Burma and Egypt.

According to the Minister of Finance the present yield per acre is 10.2 bushels, and to feed the 1946 population at ten ounces per adult 3,727,803 acres of paddy fields are required, but the fact is that only 925,000 acres were in cultivation in Ceylon at the commencement of the six-year plan.

The Director of Census and Statistics has pointed out that the population of the Island is increasing by 2.7 per cent every year and to be able to feed this increasing population it is imperative that at least 100,000 acres of land are brought under cultivation every year. If the six-year plan works according to schedule Ceylon would have at the end of 1953, 1,056,137 acres under cultivation, which would be sufficient to feed only a quarter of the population. To feed the entire population Ceylon requires 3,283,303 acres which is an impossibility, as only 3,250,000 acres are still available.

Faced with such a situation, the Government's idea now is to increase the yield per acre. Dr. D. Rhind, the Director of Agriculture, says: "It seems that without being unduly optimistic or indulging in wishful thinking, yields could be raised to something like 40 bushels per acre or more by methods which are profitable at present prices and are not beyond the capacity of the small farmer . . . there is no doubt whatever that the yields of most of the paddy fields of Ceylon can be greatly improved by the introduction of farming methods which have been tried and proved successful in a series of demonstrations."

To be self-sufficient at the end of 1953 Ceylon should be able to produce 44,143,590 bushels of paddy a year, but she will have only 1,056,137 acres, and in order to extract from this acreage the number of bushels she wants to feed

her population the yield should go up to 42.3 bushels of paddy per acre.

A considerable portion of the 500 million rupees Ceylon sends out for her food is for subsidiary foodstuffs, one of which is fish. The Danish fishing experts who visited the Island recently pointed out that there were teeming fishing grounds, untapped for decades, off the northern coasts of Ceylon, access to which was possible only by modern mechanised vessels and not by the out-moded boats that the Ceylonese fishermen use. The Ministry of Fisheries have now promised cheaper and better fish from home waters for the people.

Today, Ceylon is importing large quantities of onions, chillies and potatoes, and to combat this an all-out drive is being made to plant vegetables, mustard and pepper. The Sinhalese, who formerly preferred to grow coconuts and rubber or tea, are now following in the footsteps of the Tamils in the north and are growing two of the essentials for the rice eater—onions and chillies.



Rice Terraces near Welimada

Hong Kong's Foreign Trade

by P. Hibbert

FIGURES released recently by the Hong Kong authorities show that the imports and exports of the Crown Colony during the first seven months of 1950 were much higher than during the corresponding period of 1949, and that the increase of exports was higher than that of the imports. Even taking into consideration the devaluation of the Hong Kong dollar carried out at the end of last year, the economic situation of Hong Kong appears to be a healthy one, and this is also generally confirmed by exporters to Hong Kong and merchants in the Colony.

The following table gives some data on the foreign trade of Hong Kong:—

	1950 first seven months of the year (all figures in million H.K. dollars)	1949 first seven months of the year (all figures in million H.K. dollars)
TOTAL EXPORTS	1,715	1,178
incl. to		
China and Macao	739	303
United Kingdom	109	87
U.S.A.	147	112
Japan	63	43
Indonesia	58	41
TOTAL IMPORTS	1,901	1,421
incl. from		
China and Macao	455	394
U.K.	249	204
U.S.A.	376	304
Japan	40	57
Indonesia	41	16

The increase of exports to China is particularly noteworthy. In connection with rumours about delivery of strategically important goods from Hong Kong to China, it is important to note that an analysis of the exports during the first four months of this year (the latest available detailed returns) shows clearly that the overwhelming majority of export goods to China consisted of textiles, dyeing and tanning materials and foodstuffs. In addition, the

Hong Kong authorities issued a list of "prohibitive" export goods in August, and it remains to be seen how far this regulation will affect the trade between Hong Kong and China.

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JAPAN'S SHIPBUILDING INDUSTRY

by A. James

DURING the Second World War, Japan's merchant navy sustained devastating losses, and its size was reduced to 20 per cent of its pre-war total. It had made a spectacular increase from 4.3 million gross tons in 1931, to 6.3 million gross tons in 1941, and was left with less than 1,250,000 tons at the end of the war, after handing over about 60,000 tons of shipping for reparations.

Being fully aware of the importance of possessing a big merchant navy and an efficient shipbuilding industry for the entire economy of their country, the Japanese authorities have drawn up an ambitious plan for the shipbuilding industry with an annual target of 500,000 gross tons for 1952-53. Following the May, 1949, decision of the U.S. authorities to stop the removal of industrial installations for reparation purposes from Japan, it is estimated that the present shipbuilding capacity of the country amounts to about 800,000 gross tons per annum.

The following table gives some details of ships completed in Japanese shipbuilding yards during the first four post-war years:—

(Monthly average)	Steel Vessels		Other Vessels		Wooden Vessels (over 100 tons)		All Vessels	
	No.	Gr. T.	No.	Gr. T.	No.	Gr. T.	No.	Gr. T.
1946 ...	22	3,277	5	10,005	12	2,275	39	15,557
1947 ...	33	4,388	3	3,356	6	1,054	42	8,799
1948 ...	13	1,822	12	12,588	5	1,023	30	15,434
1949 ...	3	881	12	12,327	1	133	16	13,341

(Source: S.C.A.P. Bulletin, No. 45, May, 1950)

It is noteworthy that Japan's shipbuilding industry is already again working for export, and that the 1949 value of Japanese exports of passenger and cargo boats amounted to over 7.5 million U.S. dollars (see *Bank of Tokyo, Weekly Review*, No. 124). At the end of March, 1950, out of 84 steamers and motorships, of 390,036 gross tons, under construction in Japan, 11 ships of 89,200 tons were for registration outside Japan (including 4 of 34,800 tons for Denmark, 2 of 12,100 for France, 1 of 13,500 for Norway, 1 of 6,300 tons for Panama, and 3 of 22,500 tons for the Philippines).

At the end of June, 1950, out of 83 steamers and motorships, of 372,088 gross tons, under construction in Japan, 15 ships of 82,280 gross tons were for registration outside Japan, namely 6 of 10,080 tons for Brazil, 3 of 31,300 tons for Denmark, 2 of 12,100 tons for France, 1 of 6,300 tons for Panama, and 3 of 22,500 tons for the Philippines. (Source: *Lloyds Register Shipbuilding Returns* for the first and second quarters of 1950.)

According to the *Annual Summary of the Mercantile Shipbuilding of the World for 1949* (published by *Lloyds Register of Shipping*), the tonnage launched in Japan during 1949 amounted to 84 ships of 147,974 tons, comprising 57 steamers, of 120,916 tons, and 27 motorships, of 27,058 tons. Of the steamers, 24, of 89,477 tons, are fitted with turbine propulsion. The only ship exceeding 5,000 tons is the motor oil tanker "Fernmanor," of 13,500 tons, for registration in Norway, which is also the only ship for the carriage of oil in bulk. Of the remaining ships, 50 are under 1,000 tons each. A total of nine ships, of 23,596 tons, were for registration in other countries.

The following figures describe activities of Japanese shipbuilding yards during the first two quarters of this year:—

		1st Quarter 1950		2nd Quarter 1950	
		No.	Gr. tons	No.	Gr. tons
Commenced:	Steamers	32	169,175	—	—
	Motorships	30	121,433	15	12,240
	Total	62	290,608	15	12,240
Launched:	Steamers	2	10,695	6	31,940
	Motorships	16	21,888	16	49,170
	Total	18	32,583	22	81,110
Completed:	Steamers	4	9,740	1	10,000
	Motorships	13	10,938	15	21,180
	Total	17	20,678	16	31,180

(Source: *Lloyds Register Shipbuilding Returns* for the first and second quarters of 1950)

An important feature of Japanese shipbuilding is the construction of oil tankers, for which a great demand exists in the world market. At the end of the second quarter of 1950, out of 172 oil tankers of 1.9 million gross tons under construction in the world (U.S.S.R., Germany, Poland and China excluded), there were 14 oil tankers of 104,880 gross tons (3 steam oil tankers of 36,000 tons, and 11 motor oil tankers of 68,880 tons) under construction in Japan.



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ECONOMIC NOTES

PAKISTAN'S FOOD ECONOMY

The food economy of Pakistan changed during the last year from a deficit to a surplus one. This was due to good crops and also the measures taken by the Food Ministry to conserve stocks and stop leakages. With the changed position, restrictions placed on trade in foodgrains were suitably modified. Steps were also taken to abolish rationing and to encourage trade to resume activity.

Controls on prices and movements of coarse grains—namely jawar, bajra, maize and barley—were lifted and their export outside Pakistan under licence was also permitted. This helped the normal conditions to return. As a further encouragement, export of fine wheat products such as suji, rawa and maida by trade and flour mills in Punjab and Sind was allowed under permits.

EXHIBITION OF JAPANESE TEXTILES

The first collective exhibition of Japanese textile products is now being organised by the allied military

Government. It will be held in New York, and is intended to show the American public the extent of Japan's potential production of textiles. There will be over 3,000 exhibits, including both well-known articles and entirely new products.

FOREIGN INVESTMENTS IN INDIA

The market value of the total foreign investments in India as on June 30, 1948, has been valued at Rs. 5,960 million by the Reserve Bank of India. The bank has now completed the census of foreign assets and liabilities in regard to private foreign investments in the country. A summary of the results of the census, which was undertaken at the instance of the Indian Government Finance Minister, has been published in the Bank's Report for the year ended June 30, 1950.

Of the total foreign investments, long term business investments amounted to Rs. 5,190 million, nearly 87 per cent of the total. The remaining 13 per cent represented mostly the short term liabilities of Foreign Commercial Banks. Direct type of investments in which control of operation is associated with ownership of capital, totalled Rs. 4,310 million, nearly 83 per cent of the business investments.

Britain's investments amounted to Rs. 3,760 million, of which "direct" investments were valued at Rs. 3,220 million or 86 per cent. Other important countries include U.S.A. (300 million), Pakistan (210 million), British West Indies (150 million), Switzerland (100 million), and Canada (90 million).

CHINA REVIVES PEKING CARPET WEAVING

Carpet production in Peking at present is over 7,000 square feet per month. The manufacture of Peking carpets—formerly one of China's chief exports—was restricted and almost died out during the Japanese occupation.

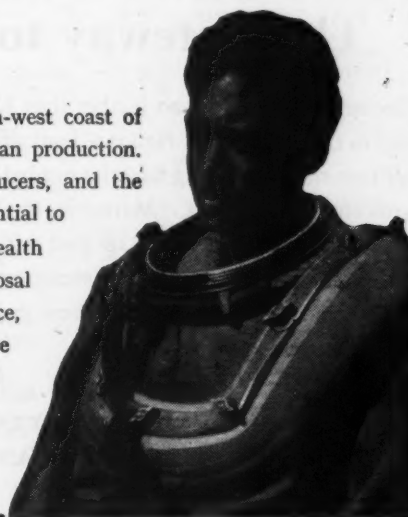
The Peking Branch of the North China Hide and Fur Company has devoted special attention to organising the unemployed carpet weavers and supplying them with materials needed for their craft. Now over 90 groups of weavers have been organised and supplied with raw materials.

ASSAM TEA CROP LOSS NEGLIGIBLE

According to enquiries made in Calcutta, the earthquake damage to the Assam tea crop is believed to be comparatively slight as most of the tea gardens are situated on the plains of the alluvial deposits. Loss of crop is estimated to be only one per cent.

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Factories and buildings of some 20 gardens in the Dum Dum area district are reported to have suffered damage.

India's annual tea production at present is about 580.8 million lbs., of which Assam produces nearly 300 million lbs. Calculated at the estimated loss of one per cent of crop, damage would be only about three million lbs.

PLANTATION WORKERS STRIKE IN JAVA

Over 500,000 workers in the Javanese rubber, tea, coffee and quinine plantations are now on strike as a result of the failure of negotiations between SARBUPRI, the trade union of the estate workers, and the General Agricultural Syndicate. The Union demands that privately owned estates should pay wages at the same level as those paid on Government owned estates, which involves a 10 to 15 per cent increase. The Agricultural Syndicate considers that these claims are unjustified, taking into consideration the costs connected with the restoration of plantations which were neglected during the war, or destroyed during the Dutch "police action." The Economic Council, which advises the Indonesian Government on economic matters, considers that the

workers' claims are justified, and that the A.L.S. is taking too much account of running costs and profit margins. Although the majority of estates uphold the A.L.S., in several places workers' demands have been complied with, and they have resumed work.

MANCHURIAN SALT OUTPUT

The Manchurian salt output this season, which reached 360,000 tons, contained 87.5 per cent first grade salt. In the Japanese occupation days the corresponding percentage was below 45. Constituting 20 per cent of the country's total supply, Manchurian salt serves both the local market and that south of the Great Wall.

Salt is of particular importance in China. Of 3,421,000 tons produced annually in the country, about 50 per cent is for dietary consumption. Ten per cent is for the chemical and fishing industries and the remaining 40 per cent for export.

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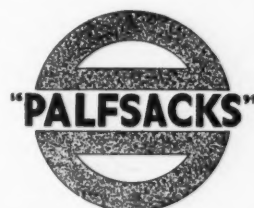
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John Glover



revolutionized the commercial manufacture of sulphuric acid. Next to water, sulphuric acid is the most important of all chemicals. Its use is so widespread that the volume of its production is often taken as a barometer of general industrial activity. In 1859 Glover built the first of the "Glover Towers", now such a familiar feature of the chemical works of Lancashire. He declined to take out a patent for his invention and was always ready to show visitors and even competitors how it worked.

Born at Wallsend, near Newcastle-on-Tyne, in 1817, John Glover was apprenticed to a plumber, but studied chemistry at the local Mechanics Institute

to such effect that he secured the post of junior chemist in a Tyneside chemical works. There he invented an improved method of manufacturing alum, and at the age of twenty-five became manager of a works making sulphuric acid, hydrochloric acid and magnesium carbonate. While thus employed, he thought out and constructed the first of his towers. In 1861 he became a partner in the Carville Chemical Works, where he remained until his retirement in 1882. Hundreds of Glover Towers, helping to make thousands of tons of sulphuric acid, stand all over the world as a monument to the inventive genius of John Glover, British chemical manufacturer.



